National Library of Canada
Canadian Theses Service
Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Services des thèses canadiennes

CANADIAN THESES

THÈSES CANADIENNES

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30.

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

NL-339 (r.86/06)

Canada

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

A PRAGMATIC STUDY OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

by

© DOO-BON PAE

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1986

Permission has been granted to the National Library of Canada to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author (copyright owner) has reserved other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without his/her written permission.

L'autorisation a été accordée à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur (titulaire du droit d'auteur) se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation écrite.

ISBN 0-315-32412-0

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR DOO-BON PAE

TITLE OF THESIS A PRAGMATIC STUDY
OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED FALL, 1986

Permission is hereby granted to THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA LIBRARY to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

(SIGNED) Doobon PAE

PERMANENT ADDRESS:
295-31, Bookgajwa-dong,
Seodaemoom-ku, Seoul,
Korea

DATED July 19, 1986

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled A PRAGMATIC STUDY OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION submitted by DOO-BON PAE in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY.

M. Brown

Supervisor

External Examiner

Date....July 19, 1986........

DEDICATION

TO MY MOTHER AND MY SISTERS, CHUNSUN AND CHOONAE

ABSTRACT

This study explored beginning second language(SL) learners' pragmatic understanding of second language acquisition(SLA) processes. It was postulated that SL is acquired through transactions among SL learners, language and the environment.

The purposes of this study were to investigate interactional aspects between SL beginners acquire the linguistic components of their target language and discourse strategies. The study also examined SL beginners' interlanguage development during classroom learning.

In order to study, in depth, the SL beginners' developmental aspects, and to understand their reality in SLA, an ethnomethodogical approach was used. School-aged six ESL(English as a second language) and KSL(Koarean as a second language) beginners were observed in the classroom for more than five months and were interviewed three times. The main data for the analysis consisted of their tape-recorded utterances. The subsequent analyses were guided by questions which arose during the observations and interviews. The analyses were performed accroding to contexts and linguistic components, and were qualitatively described.

The observed classroom discourses indicated that teachers and lesson speech events, where rigid turn-taking systems were enforced SL beginners' unvolitional speech acts and passive learning. SL beginners' strategies for comprehension and production were charaterized as multi-directional. While their syntactic development seemed related to topicalization, their phonological development was affected by prosodic modification and by the teacher directed turn-getting situations. In this study, SL beginners' errors were reinterpreted in terms of pragmatic constraints and contextual use of the target language. SL beginners were greatly sensitive to contexts in their negation development and code-switching. KSL beginners' use of personally and socially deictic terms provided evidence for the necessity of SLA through interactions.

It was concluded that these SL beginners' pragmatic understanding preceded syntactic and phonological understanding, and that their SL learning in a formal, context-free situation did not evoke pragmatic understanding. The findings of this study suggest that SL beginners should be encouraged and directed to maximize their productive and creative learning potential and be motivated toward active and volitional speech acts in the classroom. Further suggestion was that SL teaching should be focused on SL beginners' holistic understanding and pragmatic information based on cultural components of the target language.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Dr. M. P. Browne, my supervisor, who provided excellent and efficient direction throughout this study; to Dr. D. Parker and Dr. M. Young, the members of my Supervisory Committee. I am also indebted to Dr. W. Wilde and Dr. J. Blakey for their helpful support and criticisms; to Dr. H. Danner, my external examiner, for his insightful suggestions and advice.

I am grateful to my academic supervisor, Dr. J. Patrie; to Dr. T. Aoki, Dr. D. Sawada and Dr. B. Bain for their interdisciplinary and interdepartmental support and encouragement. My appreciation is extended to Ann and Jim Anderson, other fellow students and friends in Canada and in Korea.

I greatly appreciate the co-operation of Mr. Cook J. Song, Mrs. Y. J. Song(Oh) and the teachers of the Korean Language School in Edmonton. Sincere appreciation is also extended to the principal, teachers and students from the co-operating school who must remain anonymous but without whom I could not have come to fruition.

Special thanks are offered to my mother, my elder sister, Chunsun and my younger sister, Choonae; to my brothers-in-law, Mr. Jinkey Song and Mr. Insoo Kim, and their families; to my cousin, Mr. Youngjoo Pae and his wife, and the other relatives in Korea.

Table of Contents

Chapter Page

I. INTRODUCTION 1

A. BACKGROUND 1

B. PURPOSES OF THE STUDY 4

C. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS STUDY 8

D. DEFINITION OF TERMS 12

E. LIMITATIONS 15

F. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY 16

II. THEORY AND REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE 18

A. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION 18

1. ACQUISITION VS. LEARNING THEORY 18

2. COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT VS. LINGUISTIC INPUT HYPOTHESIS 22

3. COMMUNICATION THEORY 25

B. FOUR APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION STUDY 32

1. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS (CA) 34

2. ERROR ANALYSIS (EA) 35

3. PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS(PA) 37

4. DISOURSE-FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS 39

C. PRAGMATIC PERSPECTIVES IN SLA RESEARCH 42

1. PRAGMATIC VIEWPOINT 43

2. DISCOURSE AND CONVERSATIONAL ANALYSIS ...46

3. DISCOURSE STRATEGIES 51

4. REGISTER AND SOCIAL DEIXIS 54

5. DEVELOPMENTAL PRAGMATIC PERSPECTIVES 57

III. RESEARCH DESIGN 62

A. SAMPLE CHILDREN 62

B. SAMPLE CONTEXTS 65

C. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES 67

1. BASIC CONCEPTS FOR RESEARCH DESIGN 68

2. PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION 70

3. INTERVIEWING 71

4. NOTE-TAKING 73

5. TAPE RECORDING PROCEDURES 74

D. TREATMENT OF THE DATA 75

1. DESCRIPTION OF THE TRANSCRIPTION METHOD .75

2. TRANSCRIPTION PROCEDURES 76

E. DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES 77

1. DATA CLASSIFICATION 79

2. DETAILED DATA ANALYSES 81

F. PILOT STUDY 88

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT AND SLA 91

A. FINDINGS 92

1. THE FUNCTIONS OF SL CLASSROOM DISCOURSE .93

2. FEATURES OF SL CLASSROOM CONVERSATION ..105

3. PASSIVE VS. ACTIVE TURN-GETTING 110

4. TURN TRANSFER 118

B. DISCUSSION 120

1. FEATURES OF CLASS SPEECH EVENT 121

2. FUNCTIONS OF SL CLASS LESSON FOR SLA ...124

3. DEVELOPMENTAL ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE USE ..129

4. SENSITIVITY TO TURN ALLOCATION 131

5. PASSIVE AND ACTIVE TURN-GETTING 135

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: MORPHOSYNTACTIC DEVELOPMENT 140

A. FINDINGS 141

1. LEXICAL UNDERSTANDING AND USE 141

2. PHRASE LEVEL UTTERANCES 149

3. INVERSION 158

4. CODE-SWITCHING 161

B. DISCUSSION 164

1. MORPHOSYNTACTIC UNDERSTANDING 164

2. USE OF SECOND LANGUAGE AND ITS CONSTRAINT 171

3. TOPICALIZATION 174

4. ELLIPSIS 179

5. CODE-SWITCHING 182

VI. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: DEVELOPMENT OF NEGATION 190

A. FINDINGS 190

1. NONVERBAL NEGATION 191

2. INTRINSIC NEGATION 192

3. SIMPLE NEGATION 195

4. ELABORATED NEGATION 197

B. DISCUSSION 199

1. PRAGMATICS OF NEGATION 200

2. DEVELOPMENTAL ASPECTS : ESL LEARNERS ...204

3. ACQUISITION OF NEGATION: KSL LEARNERS ..212

VII. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: PHONOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT 221

A. FINDINGS 222

1. DIVERSIFICATION - SPLIT STRATEGY 222
2. SIMPLIFICATION - MERGER STRATEGY 227
3. MODIFICATION OF PROSODIC CONTOUR 234
4. PHONOLOGICAL CUES AND MISUNDERSTANDING .238
5. EMERGENCE OF CONFIRMATION CHECK 242

B. DISCUSSION 244

1. PHONOLOGICAL UNDERSTANDING AND PRODUCTION 245
2. STRATEGIES 248
3. PROSODIC DEVELOPMENT 254
4. MISUNDERSTANDING 258

VIII. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: ACQUISITION OF SOCIAL DEIXIS 264

A. FINDINGS 265

1. SPEAKER HONORIFICS/PERSONAL PRONOUN 265
2. ADDRESSEE HONORIFICS: PERSONAL PRONOUN .268
3. REFERENT HONORIFICS 271
4. AUDIENCE HONORIFICS 273
5. HONORIFIC CONCORD 275

B. DISCUSSION 277

1. SPEAKER HONORIFICS: PERSONAL PRONOUN ...278
2. USE OF VOCATIVES 285
3. HONORIFIC CONCORD 289
4. THE USE OF "KYESITA" 291

IX. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS 297

A. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS 297

B. CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY 303

C. IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY 307

1. IMPLICATIONS FOR SL LEARNING 307

2. IMPLICATIONS FOR SL TEACHING 308

3. IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION 310

4. FURTHER LIMITATIONS ON THE FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY 311

5. IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH 311

BIBLIOGRAPHY 314

APPENDIX A. TRANSCRIPTION 331

APPENDIX B. AN ESL CLASSROOM LESSON PROGRAM 333

APPENDIX C-1. CONSONANT ERRORS OF ESL STUDENTS 335

APPENDIX C-2. VOWEL ERRORS OF ESL STUDENTS 337

APPENDIX C-3. CONSONANT ERRORS OF KSL STUDENTS 338

APPENDIX C-4. VOWEL ERRORS OF KSL STUDENTS 339

LIST OF TABLES

Tables	Description	Page
1.	Speech act schema	30
2.	Four scales of speech styles	54
3.	Number of utterances by SL students and teachers	80
4-1.	Unitary speech level in Korean	86
4-2.	Dual speech level and formality in Korean	87
5.	Topic elements of the opening speech event	94
6-1.	Turn-taking frequency of ESL students ...	109
6-2.	Turn-taking frequency of KSL students ...	109
7.	Passive and active turn-taking	111
8.	Turn-giving and turn-yielding	118
9.	Turn-getting and use of articles	150
10.	Turn-getting and developmental speech acts	175
11-1.	ESL students' nonverbal negation	191
11-2.	ESL students' use and misuse of negative response	193
11-3	KSL students' use of 'NO' as code-switching	197
12-1.	Consonant errors of ESL students	224
12-2.	Vowel errors of ESL students	224

Tables	Description	Page
12-3.	Consonant errors of KSL students	225
12-4.	Vowel errors of KSL students	226
13-1.	KSL students' use of speaker honorifics	267
13-2.	KSL students' use of addressee honorifics	269
13-3.	KSL students' use of honorifics in response	270
13-4.	KSL students' use of referent honorifics	272
14-1.	Characteristics of one-word utterance stage	299
14-2.	Characteristics of multi-word utterance stage	300

LIST OF FIGURES

Figures Page

1. The thematic structure of discourse 47
2. A centripetal model of conversation 108

LIST OF SYMBOLS

Superscript	Number of note
(:)	Long vowel
Ø	Zero phone or zero form
* (initial)	Grammatically incorrect utterance
** (initial)	Pragmatically incorrect utterance
? (initial)	Pragmatically unacceptable utterance

MARKS OF TRANSCRIPTION

/	Utterance boundary
=	No gap
(.3)	Pause length (second)
//	Beginning of overlap
]	End of overlapped utterances
-	Point of interruption
,	Low-rise intonation
?	High-rise intonation
.	Low-fall intonation
((LF))	Voice quality (Laughing)
( )	Unclear treading and no hearing
(.)	Pause or long sound
/X/	Repetition of prior utterance

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

A. BACKGROUND

While interest in second language acquisition(SLA) has deep historical roots, as the geographic and political barriers to cross cultural interaction have fallen, more and more interest in this area is evident. Certainly, over the past few decades, many have expended considerable effort to try to find efficient and facilitating ways to enable mastery of second languages.

While many approaches to the study of SLA have drawn on traditional behavioristic, cognitive and linguistic theories, what is too often forgotten is that the acquisition of language cannot be separated from everyday life. While linguists, for example, give priority to the structural properties of linguistic components, they have largely ignored the interactional phenomena of SLA. Since the research to data has not provided necessary and sufficient evidence about second language(SL) learners' communicative competence, research based on a pragmatic perspective has begun to appear. This study is based on that perspective in that here it is argued that to understand the reality of SLA, we must understand the process of SLA and that to accomplish that we must first explore SLA under natural conditions.

It is a basic assumption of this study that the process of SLA is performed through transactions among human beings, language, and society. A SL is acquired not merely through linguistic or psychological processes but also through social interactions that occur between learners and others in their environment. Moreover, social interaction tends to be dependent upon and inseparable from personal and cultural factors that are significant to that second language. We could say, for example, that language has the characteristics of an iceberg, with the surface structure being the utterance which is the visible (or in this case audible) part of the iceberg but with the meaning of the utterance at the lower depths and becoming more complex, deeper and deeper below the surface. The meaning world is so huge that hearers may only infer the meaning of an utterance within the bounds of the verbal and non-verbal communication context within which it occurs. By observing beginning SL learners in a natural learning environment, the classroom, SLA processes in this study are examined in a real context where meanings can be studied at least a little below the surface.

Communication encompasses both verbal and non-verbal components and as such, it is too complex to be addressed within the limits of this study. Instead, this study focuses mainly on observed verbal behavior since "speech is an encompassing factor of the social world"(Ventriglia, 1982, p. v). Moreover, it is acknowledged from the outset that pragmatic studies which involve the "study of the acquisition of interactional and social aspects of language" (Schmidt, 1981, p. 30) are indeed still in what he calls their infancy. This study is no exception and its exploratory nature is acknowledged.

This study focuses on the analysis of verbal interaction in the SL classroom because school-aged SL beginners usually depend on classroom learning experiences for their acquisition of a target language. While other classroom researchers have studied selected aspects of teacher talk, this study focuses more on SL learners' learning abilities and interlanguage development through classroom interaction. In other words, it is argued here that we really need to know what it is that SL learners are acquiring in the classroom. This is particularly true if we accept the assumption that SLA varies according to personal differences and environmental factors, including cultural background. Such differences are addressed in this study by examining aspects of two different classrooms: one where the children are learning English as a second language(ESL) and one where the children are learning Korean as a second language(KSL).

To maximize the interpretation of SLA processes, an ethnomethodological approach is used in this study in order that SL learners' language development may be explained in terms of developmental pragmatics.' This approach is assumed to be a particularly valid way of addressing important aspects of the transactional processes of SLA. It is believed that this approach should help fill in crucial gaps left by more traditional studies of SL instruction in classroom because it attempts to describe SL learners' inner world through language and attempts to reveal the developmental aspects of interlanguage.

B. PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between SL beginners and environmental factors, and therefore the study focused on school-aged children who had acquired their first language and had some schooling in the first language, but were now acquiring the SL. Therefore, the schools were the contexts for SLA in this study. Since school-aged SL beginners usually participate in schools and classroom learning environments, the effects of class speech events on SLA and interactional aspects were investigated. We need to know what the functions of SL classes as part of school systems are, especially since schools and classrooms are contrived environments for SL learning.

This study presupposed that language acquisition is not the memorization of linguistic constituents presented by teachers and textbooks, but is achieved by a process of transaction among SL learners, language, and social contexts. The nature and features of SL classroom lessons and the conversational structures of lessons were the primary data for this study, as was the relationship between SL learners and language in that learning context.

The second purpose of this study was to find out how SL learners manipulate SLA processes. When a SL is grafted to the first language, how can heterogeneous language systems take root in the learners' language world? When children learn a SL, they receive input which, in a broad sense, is "all the stimuli, both past and present, that give us our information about the world" (Tubbs & Moss, 1983, p. 27). Some researchers have suggested that no two people - not even identical twins - take in the same input, even when their environment seems constant (Leonard, Newhoff & Mesalam, 1980), nor do they produce linguistic forms in the exactly same way (Cazden, 1972). SL learners seem to acquire language as a conveyor of meanings in context rather than systematic rules of syntax, phonology or even pragmatics. Therefore, if only the structure of SL learners' productions are analyzed, the analyses would not provide sufficient evidenc for SLA.

To understand the children's beginning SLA process, it is necessary to analyze function-to-form mode, which begins with a functional domain at the level of the children's discourse, word order variation, and morphology (Long & Sato, 1984).[1] Kumpf(1984) has proposed that linguistic forms are motivated by particular discourse functions, arguing that the use of form is indexed to a particular context in discourse. Even though there have been many studies of advanced or intermediate SL learners, this is one of a few which have focused on SL beginners. This study of the developmental aspects of beginning SL learners during a specific period should add to our knowledge of what goes on at later stages. In this sense, the present study is aimed at the interpretation and description of SL beginners' use of the target language in relation to morphosyntactic, phonological and pragmatic domain.

The third purpose was to determine what strategies beginning SL learners made use of during classroom discourse. It was assumed that SL beginners largely rely on what they know and on contextualization cues in the classroom conversation. Discourse strategies employed by SL learners vary from person to person, because discourse strategies are methods of achieving communication, and of encoding or expressing meaning in a language(Brown, 1980). Understanding and expressing an utterance at discourse levels involves pragmatic understanding and inferences that "connect what is said to what is mutually assumed or what has been said before" (Levinson, 1983, p. 21). Since strategies can be considered a basic characteristic of communication and of most human behavior, it is necessary to discover what strategies beginning SL learners use in acquiring communicative competence.

The fourth purpose of this study was to investigate how SL beginners modify input during classroom discourse. It was presupposed that what SL beginners know in their world is qualitatively and quantitatively different from the input provided for them. Speech acts during interaction among/between participants in a conversation must be incorporated into style or register. A register is "a set of grammatical modifications associated with the social contexts" (Arthur, Weiner, Culver, Lee & Thomas, 1980, p. 112). Would classroom interaction allow or encourage SL beginners to shift styles or registers according to context and would they adjust the input from teachers and from peers? Modification and adjustment are seen as related to and parallel to interlanguage development, and therefore to understand interlanguage development of SL learners, traditional and experimental studies have manipulated and/or used SL learners' errors of linguistic components without any consideration of context. Context-free linguistic analyses have been criticized in that they do not contribute to our understanding of the reality of the use of a target language, and so they exclude predictive power. On the other hand, this study is concerned with the understanding of becoming a SL learner.

In addition, many linguists have turned their attention to languages other than English as a second language, and have attempted to find some evidence for linguistic universalities and particularities. This study investigates two languages: English as a second language and Korean as a second language, because it is aimed at the investigation of cultural understanding and pragmatic information according to language development, such as a variety of honorific expressions in terms of social deixis (Cho, 1982). Finally, in order to gain an integrated understanding of SL development, methodological issues must be addressed.

C. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS STUDY

It goes without saying that mastery of vocabulary, grammatical rules, and structures is unproductive if the SL learner cannot use those forms for communication, or if the lack of those forms prevents a communication from being understood. Hymes(1969) states that "not grammar, but the act of speech is the core and starting point of description of the place of language in human life"(p. 118). Learning communication and learning functions of language are largely concerned with the effective application of linguistic items. Understanding functions of language and use of a SL is generally acquired by a pragmatic approach.

Pragmatics is viewed as "the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the contexts in which they would be appropriate" (Levinson, 1983, p. 24). While it is very important to do a synchronic pragmatic analysis in SLA studies, it seems more significant to observe and study diachronic development of SL learners' language use in terms of SLA than to describe only synchronic aspects of language learning. Thus, in order to promote understanding SLA processes, this study, which is based on the notion of developmental pragmatics, will investigate when and how SL learners' communicative alternatives emerge and their relation to particular morphosyntactic structures in language.

The major significance of this study is that it is an early attempt to show that studies based on developmental pragmatics can contribute to holistic understanding of SL learners and SLA processes. SL beginners learn their SL like their first language in that they can infer and comprehend language they cannot produce. Consider Hatch's(1983) claim that:

> With world knowledge, however limited, and the use of inference, learners can understand a great deal. If language acquisition were limited to basic comprehension, then a model based on speech setting, world knowledge, pragmatics, and general cognitive capacity might suffice.... However, in true language acquisition, an overall complete and autonomous grammar must be created. Its creation must rely, at least in part, on input, interaction, and inference"(pp. 186-187).

What Hatch has emphasized is the importance of world knowledge and pragmatic information in SLA prior to context-free pattern practices and mechanical memorization of linguistic input. What this study should be able to provide is valuable information about how the classroom context can be changed to insure that world knowledge and pragmatic information can have arole in SLA.

This study is also significant in that it moves away from a focus on the role of teacher-talk in the classroom to an analysis of the talk of the children who are engaged in the SLA process. In that sense, this study has a learner-centered view throughout. By observing and analyzing the behavior of children who are beginners in acquiring the English language and children who beginners with the Korean language, this study is able to offer some interesting insights into the environmental and cultural differences that affect SLA. The analyses of this study were concerned with the appropriate use of the target language rather than grammaticalness of a sentence so the SL learners' errors and mistakes were interpreted here according to the context. Thus, this study will provide a critical understanding the SL learners' errors as they affect the meaning explicitly or implicitly implied by their verbal interactions.

This study is significant in that it applied an ethnomethodological method to developmental pragmatics. This study involved intensive field work for a specific period, utilizing the technique of participant observation. In order to understand the processes and strategies in SLA, it seemed appropriate to try to initiate an in-depth study of selected instances of verbal interaction in the SL classroom, to observe whether or not speakers and hearers understood each other, to elicit participants' interpretations of what went on, and then to deduce the social assumptions that speakers must have made in order to act as they did.

This study was concerned with the process through which meanings or the functional domain originally expressed by discourse-pragmatic strategies came to be lexicalized or grammaticized, that is, encoded in linguistic form (Givón, 1979; Sato, 1984). Multi-level analyses were utilized, since the strategies and devices used by the learner were examined. It was taken for granted that SL learners must acquire adaptability of register in order to be able to understand discourse phonology correctly. It was also assumed that "prosodic features of intonation and pitch are among the first aspects of language learned by the child" (Cazden, 1972, p. 184) and an important difference in fluency among SL learners is the degree to which they are able to vary styles for different occasions and persons. Different styles of language are used "depending upon the context in terms of subject matter, the audience, the mode of discourse (speaking or writing), and the formality of the occasion"(Brown, 1980, p. 191).

As Chapter VIII will show, honorific terms are considered an important factor in assessing the degree of acquisition of pragmatics in the Korean language. Humble expressions, addressee honorifics, and honorific concord are connected with an intricate aspect of morphology in languages with honorific systems. "These are some of the most important, and most ignored, examples of the direct interaction between pragmatics and syntax" (Levinson, 1983, p. 92). Few SLA studies in relation to social deixis in the Koean language have been done so far, even though there are a few such studies in other oriental languages. Expanding the study of SL learners to include pragmatic, and functional dimensions should make a major contribution to a better understanding of SLA processes in general and the applicability of the findings to classroom education of SL teachers.

D. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Communicative alternatives: alternative use of linguistic forms which is manifested by verbal utterances or nonverbal signs. In this study, this term is used, in a narrower sense, as pragmatic alternatives.

Communicative competence: language user's implicit, structural, and functional capability for communication. Communicative competence usually includes linguistic, nonverbal and social competence.

Context: parts of linguistic and environmental features reflecting the language user's world, beyond the word level.

Developmental pragmatics: a study of developmental aspects of language use in relation to verbal and nonverbal communication.

Discourse-functional analysis: analysis based on discourse mode, and its linguistic coding devices in relation to prelinguistic means of communicating meaning.

Discourse-pragmatic analysis: a kind of discourse analysis dealing with the interpretation of discourse-level social interaction, by reference to contexts of language use and pragmatic information.

Documentary interpretation: a method of description in the form of a document, which gives information and presents evidence of the observed behavior and the underlying pattern.

Ethnomethodology: a study of practical activities and of common-sense knowledge, and of practical organizational reasoning, which is based on observable-reportable, and accountable realities as adequate grounds of inference and action for the conduct. According to Garfinkel(1975), 'ethno' is referred to 'the availability to a member of common-sense knowledge of the whatever.'

Field study: a flexible method of observing events or conducts in a natural situation. This method usually allows the researcher/observer to interact with a specific population with an interest in a specific aspect of behavior, to affect a specific population and to use various approaches, even experimentation.

Foreign language: any language other than the first language. Sometimes, it is referred to as the language which is not widely used as a national language, while second language may be used in the learner's society as a daily or offical language. Foreign language is sometimes distinguished from second language, in a narrow sense.

Functional analysis: a type of linguistic analysis which is based on function rather than form, showing how basic elements of speech combine into environments of higher rank, or which role a constituent plays in an utterance.

Input: the information about the world which is conveyed in the linguistic forms. It is also referred to as a primary linguistic data which is presented to a language learner.

Interlanguage: a metaphoric term used in a sense of intermediate linguistic system between a learner's first language and his or her second language.

Interlanguage development, or Second language development: an approximating transition to the adult language system of the target language, through a series of complex stages in a continuum of language acquisition.

Naturalistic observation: a rigid procedure to observe something which is happening in a natural situation without any operational control of variables.

Performance: language user's observable and concrete realization of competence.

Register: a variety in language use for a specific purpose, such as reference to subject matter, to medium(mode of discourse), or to level of formality(manner of discourse; formal, casual, intimate, etc.). In this study, register is referred to as manner of discourse or formality.

Second language: language which is learned after the acquisition of a learner's native language. Foreign language or bilingualism is frequently used as a synonym of second language.

E. LIMITATIONS

Since the scope of pragmatic studies and application is too broad to be described, this study will interpret some related part of speech acts, discourse structure, and deixis. This does not mean that this study will completely exclude other parts. Therefore, this study has the following limitations.

First, the ethnomethodological or ethnographic approach is subject to the lack of generalization of its findings. The researcher recognized the bias inherent in one person reporting events and speech acts. Cultural understanding and interpreting cultural aspects of informants include some biases. Even though two informants may give accurate information and interpretation, their cultural background and awareness are not necessarily similar.

Second, this was not a sociolinguistic study, nor a pure linguistic study of an ideal person. Since this study did not manipulate or test to elicit predesigned factors or elements, the weakness of quantitatively insufficient data was inevitable. However, the researcher tried to compensate for that weakness by collecting in depth data over an expected period of time, and supplemented that data with relevant verbal behavior from an interview session. This method will give an emerging perspective to SLA research.

Third, some constituents of language structures and systems were not analyzed. For example, lexical, relatives, reflexives, impersonal pronouns, exclamatory sentences, the distinction of simple, complex, and compound sentences, and generative phonology as well as semantic interpretations and acquisition were missing. These elements will remain a task for further research.

Fourth, this study did not uncover all the aspects of language development, cultural understanding, and pragmatic development. Invisible cultures and unobserved language use were not interpreted nor analyzed, yet the study did provide considerable evidence within the range of data collected. In this sense, this study should make a contribution as a stepping stone to ethnographic research for SLA.

F. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter I has introduced the problem of the current SLA research and basic assumptions of the present study. Chapter II will describe the theoretical background relevant to this study, discusses four current methods related to SLA research, and in particular, presents the perspectives of the present developmental pragmatic study. Chapter III will introduce the exploratory method, an integrated method used by this study and discuss its applicability.

The results of data analysis will lead to five domains of interactional phases. Chapter IV will deal with the nature of class lessons as environmental factors for SLA, and SL beginners' adjustment and modification to turn-taking systems. Chapter V will be concerned with SL beginners' communicative alternatives, morphosyntactic development and code-switching, and then Chapter VI with negation development. Chapter VII will be focused on phonological development of SL beginners in terms of segmental and discourse phonology. Chapter VIII will deal with personal and social deixis used by KSL beginners.

NOTE

1. Ochs & Schiefflin (1979, p. viii) used the term developmental pragmatics'.

2. Long and Sato (1984) indicate : "relevant coding devices in this domain operate at the level of discourse (zero anaphora and pronominalization), word order variation...., and morphology. The inclusion of the phonological level can be seen in prosodic features, such as stress...., and intonation.... Each of the traditional levels - phonology, morphology, lexis, syntax and semantics, is affected to varying degrees by one or more of the others"(p. 272).

Chapter II

THEORY AND REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the literature and research pertinent to this study both from a theoretical perspective and in terms of its methodology. In the first section, the theoretical background for the study is set out by drawing on selected writings from a number of theoretical perspectives that have influenced studies of second language acquisition. The second section critically analyzes four approaches to the study of second language acquisition in terms of their contributions to the field generally and to this study in particular. The third section provides an indepth study of the pragmatic in SLA research, since that perspective is integral to the present study.

A. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

1. ACQUISITION VS. LEARNING THEORY

There are two major view-points on the acquisition and learning of SL: one is that SL acquisition and learning are differential processes, and the other is that SL learning is a target-oriented successive process toward acquisition.

Krashen(1981, 1982) believes that the distinction between *acquisition* and *learning* is used to indicate differential processes in adult SL use - as dual properties of strategy. Advocates suggest that acquisition is a subconscious process, in which ability in a second language is developed by using it in natural, communicative situations. Learning is viewed as knowing the rules, and having a conscious knowledge about grammar. Acquisition which is the central, most important means for gaining linguistic skills even for an adult is responsible for the ability to understand and speak SL easily and well. On the other hand, conscious learning of rules has a limited function as a monitor. Some emphasize that real acquisition comes only from comprehensible input, and that SL learners acquire the target language when they focus on what is being said, rather than how it is said (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982; Krashen, 1981, 1982; Krashen & Terrel, 1983).

Felix(1981) argues against the differential model suggesting that there are important similarities between SL learning in a natural environment and SL learning in an instructional setting. He indicates that SL learners, even in formal instruction settings, follow principles of naturalistic acquisition, and employ strategies to randomly select any one structure from a given repertoire. He also suggests that classroom SL learners process the linguistic input data on the basis of the same principles as the untutored SL learners.

Stevick (1984) is convinced that both learning and acquisition are basically not parallel, but rather "a single process working itself out under different sets of circumstances"(p. 35). He assumes that, since SL learning depends upon some personal and/or emotional factors, receptive and productive learning are of practical importance to SLA (Stevick, 1976). Language learning-acquisition is viewed as a 'continuum', a process to move from one mystery to another on the same plane.

The linear model of SL acquisition and learning is also supported by Seliger's(1983, 1984) learnability hypothesis of every human language. He preassumes two levels of processing for SLA: strategy and tactic. The former is independent of learner characteristics and learning context and universal to all language learning situations; the latter is variable and specific to any given learner and context. Acquisition is dependent upon the set of constant, abstract learning strategies. Such strategies are manifested in the form of behavioral responses as tactics(Bloom, Lightbown & Hood, 1978; Schachter & Rutherford, 1979; Selinker & Lamendella, 1979; Sharwood-Smith, 1981). Individual and functional variations can be attributed to a SL learner's alternative choice between the two levels.

McLaughlin(1978, 1981) presents another distinction of the linear model - *controlled* versus *automatic processing*. Controlled processes are associated with short-term memory and regulate the flow of information between short-term and long-term memory. Automatic processes are concerned with long-term store and take substantial time to develop. His point is that automatic processes do not require attention and, because of their speed and automaticity, they are usually not available to conscious attention; thus, controlled processes lay down the 'stepping stone'(McLaughlin, Rossman & McLeod, 1983) for automatic processing as the learner moves to more and more difficult levels.

To synthesize these theories, then, the major differences are a matter of focus. The former differential process hypotheses emphasize strategies for acquisition, whereas the latter linear or continuum hypotheses put a focus on the developmental approach to language acquisition. The linear model is concerned with stages of development, and the processing levels of sequences; it has, however, some weakness in that these hypotheses do not indicate how and in what sequence the knowledge for a particular stage is obtained. To be brief, the differential theory implies that research on SLA or applied linguistics should put emphasis on subconscious acquisition processes, but it does not specify what aspects of language SL learners acquire, nor does it reveal how adult learners use acquisition and learning in performance. Thus, when SL learners' systematic variations in linguistic phenomena (including such factors as speech situation, discourse topic, speaker-hearer roles and relationships, and interlanguage development) are taken into consideration, a continuum paradigm is believed to superior to Krashen's monitor theory (Sato, 1985; Tarone, 1984).

2. COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT VS. LINGUISTIC INPUT HYPOTHESIS

With the support of nativism and rationalism, the transformational-generative view of language development has focused on the innate, genetic potentialities rather than the acquisition of language, and the independence of language from other mental functions. Nowadays, however, this hypothesis is faced with a contradicting hypothesis based on general cognitive development.

The Cognitive Development Hypothesis(CDH) assumes that the underlying abilities of language learning are obtained in the course of cognitive development. In other words, the specific structures and categories of a language, and the mapping strategies of communicative intention implicated in language functions are acquired along with the sequences of cognitive development. The stronger version of CDH claims that linguistic development is completely determined by cognitive development (Schlesinger, 1982) and language is embedded in a complex network of cognitive abilities(Slobin, 1979). This view asserts that children perceive the concepts expressed in language through maturation and interaction with the extra-linguistic environment, and they can associate these concepts with suitable linguistic expressions according to their own developmental stage.

Linguistic Input Hypothesis(LIH), contrary to the CDH, assumes that children's experience with language is a significant determinant of linguistic development and that their linguistic experience accounts for the acquisition of concepts underlying language. Thus, the linguistic input may impose the language acquisition order on the many unique occurrences of objects, events, and relations (Brown, 1973; Edwards, 1976). The linguistic input may direct children to interpret their environment and not simply to categorize those extra-linguistic notions that they have already attained. Linguistic input may also play a great role in constructing certain parts of the language world.

While L1 is acquired during social interaction in a natural situation, SL can be learned at all ages and in various learning conditions. It seems that a child grows up in a linguistic world in which communicative intentions are mapped onto various forms of the language. Consequently, these two hypotheses need not be viewed as incompatible. 'Integrative views' (Schlesinger, 1982) of these two hypotheses may be preferred to the two respective strong versions.

Firstly, a very plausible and epistemological account within the Piagetan framework can be made as to how the relation between child's talk and semantics develops through the child's interaction with his environment (Piaget, 1977, 1978; Schlesinger, 1982). Thus, extra-linguistic experience may be significantly connected with the emergence and shift of one relation and linguistic experience to another.

Secondly, the uniformity and universality of language acquisition must be explained in the integrated terms of both views. Some learners may learn a given distinction through extra-linguistic experiences, as claimed by the CDH, whereas others tend more to utilize linguistic input (Bruner, 1983; Schlesinger, 1982). Moreover, the structure and order of SL learning process is largely determined by general mental processes, and SL learners are faced with a similar task and are likely to use comparable operating principles to carry out that task (Van Els, Bongaerts, Extra, Van Os & Dieten, 1984).

Thirdly, it is likely that cognitive development facilitates the operation of linguistic input. The two processes of cognitive development and linguistic input may occur within a single child or a SL learner. In particular, SL learners need more time for their language acquisition device(LAD) to work on the input in building up syntax or conversation. Conversation is a production of "what they are learning and the syntax grows out of it, or perhaps it is some combination of the two" (Hatch, 1983, p. 169). Besides, the speed and success of SL learning process varies and is affected by social and psychological conditions of the SL learners and their environment (Bruner, 1983; Schlesinger, 1982; Van Els et al., 1984).

Finally, a perfectly elaborated input does not explain a child's ability to form a grammar based on that input, even though the child must make use of parental input to discover the underlying regularities of the language (Slobin, 1979). Language acquisition theories, especially in terms of SLA, are implicitly and explicitly connected with sociogenetic, and pragmatic concepts or aspects. "The earliest and most fundamental function of speech is pragmatic - to direct, control, and alter human activities - and thus is inseparable from social relations" (Bain, 1983, p. xxii). The lessons children learn through their interactions with the environment subsequently converge with those learned from the language describing this environment. In terms of SLA, Long(1985) shows many characteristics of modified language input in conversational contexts. Conversational interaction and interaction in the SL classroom provide useful input for SL learners. This implies that social interaction facilitates comphrehensible input, because "behind all high mental processes stand real relations among people"(Bain, 1983, p. xxii).' For these reasons, the extreme point in general is unwarranted; an interaction between these factors will make linguistic growth appear.

3. COMMUNICATION THEORY

Language is a function of communication as well as being a major instrument of thinking and the basis of conscious and purposeful behavior(Schubert, 1983). Speaking and spoken words are a pervasive phenomenon which it takes place in various settings and contexts. Even though a variety of definitions and subcategories have been found, the main concern of SLA studies is about speech communication.

Communication is broadly defined as "the sharing of experience" (Tubbs & Moss, 1983, p. 4) and Barlund(1974) thinks of communication as "a word that describes the process of creating a meaning"(p. 212). In a narrower sense, Masterson, Beebe and Watson(1983) define speech communication as "a human process through which we make sense out of the world and share that sense with others"(p. 5). Dance and Larson (1972) view speech communication as "the process, or the product of the process, of the fusion of genetically determined speech with culturally determined language"(p. 32).

According to these definitions, speech communication includes both the *process* through which language and speech come together and the *product* of that process. The former is concerned with language acquisition and development, whereas the latter is concerned with the spoken word as it is used in a variety of contexts. Barlund(1974, pp. 213-214) suggests four principles of human communication phenomena as follows:

(i) Communication is not a thing; it is a process.
(ii) Communication is complex.
(iii) Communication is irreversible and unrepeatable.
(iv) Communication involves the total personality.

With regard to the studies of second language acquisition, speech communication theories are likely to be applied within, at least, two ranges of subcategories: *human communication* and *linguistic communication*.

(A) HUMAN COMMUNICATION

Tubbs & Moss (1983) suggest that human communication seems to take place in one of three ways. The simplest way is *linear one-way*; a communication sender provides a stimulus, and a receiver makes the expected response without choosing and interpretating. A more complex way is *interactional*; here the concept of feedback is introduced. The receiver selects, interprets, and responds to the sender's message. The third is the *transactional* way. From this viewpoint, communication can be thought of only within the context of a relationship between two or more people in an infinite variety of situations. Among them are two-person communication, interviewing, small-group, public, organizational, and mass communication.

Since the studies on SLA and learning usually deal with dyadic, interviewing, this research also focuses on these two contexts in SL classrooms. Wilmot(1979) elaborates upon dyads as "any face-to-face transaction between two people.... Any direct communicative transaction between two people, whether it be fleeting or recurring, is dyadic"(p. 4). Dyads, two-person communications, provide each participant with more involvement, more participation, and self-realization. Although other contexts involve face-to-face exchanges, the dyad involves a higher degree of intimacy than any other context.

Two-person communication events include most of the informal, everyday exchanges. The outcomes of interaction constantly changes as a result of the responses of both parties. What each person says greatly depends on what the other side says and does and each relies on feedback from the other communicator.

Small-group communication can be defined as "the process by which three or more members of a group exchange verbal and nonverbal messages in an attempt to influence one another" (Tubbs & Moss, 1983, p. 9).

(B) LINGUISTIC COMMUNICATION

Hymes(1972) identifies three major aspects of communicative competence: a grammatical competence necessary to make oneself understood (locutionary acts), a pragmatic competence (illocutionary acts), and a discursive competence (conversational acts). Language is an instrument not only of thinking but also of communication. Words are used to communicate thoughts; words mean thoughts or successions of thoughts which can be present or past, real or unreal. What is communicated is a proposition; the words are used to inform or move. Thus, sentences may be uttered in order to get psychological empathy and intellectual assent for the proposition with conventional meaning, or to convey feelings by means of communicated thoughts.

An illocutionary act or a speech act can be successfully performed if the speaker's illocutionary intention is recognized by the hearer. These intentions are essentially communicative, because the fulfillment of illocutionary intentions consists in hearer understanding. Austin(1962) declares that the performance of an illocutionary act, or a perlocutionary act, may be done with the design, intention, or purpose of producing some consequential effects upon the feelings, thoughts, or actions of the speaker or of other persons.

Searle (1969) points out the relation between the fulfillment of illocutionary intentions and their recognition, stating that "we succeed in doing what we are trying to do by getting our audience to recognize what we are trying to do. But the effect on the hearer .... consists simply in the hearer understanding the utterance of the speaker"(p. 47).

Grice (1975) has developed a theory about how people use language, and proposes a general co-operative principle and four basic maxims of conversation. The maxims which are usually believed to be obeyed are the maxim of Quality, the maxim of Quantity, the maxim of Relevance, and the maxim of Manner. Cooperative principles involve not only communication through the use of words in their literal meanings, but construction of specific conventions for the interpretation of discourse tasks as well as the speaker's and listener's knowledge of how to conduct and interpret live performances(Gumperz & Cook-Gumperz, 1982). Bach and Harnish (1979) extend Grice's conversational implicature and provides the *speech act schema*(SAS) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Speech act schema[1]

	'BASIS'
L1. S[2]is uttering 'e'[3]	hearing S utter 'e'
L2. S means such-and-such by 'e'	L1, LP[4], MCBs[5]
L3. S is saying to H that so-and-so	L2, LP, MCBs
L4. S is doing such-and-such	L3, CP[6], MCBs

Note: [1]from *Communication and Speech Acts*, by K. Bach & R. Harnish, 1979, p. 13. [2]speaker [3]utterance [4]linguistic presumption [5]mutual contextual belief [6]communicative presumption

SAS(Speech act schema) is based on the assumption that "the speaker provides a basis for the hearer to infer what the speaker intends to be thereby doing"(Bach & Harnish, 1979, pp. 4-5). The hearer's inference is in general based not just on what the speaker says but also on *mutual contextual beliefs* (Bach & Harnish, 1979), or common and mutual knowledge (Lewis, 1969). The contextual beliefs that figure in speakers' purposes or intentions and hearers' inferences must be common and mutual if they want to communicate. The hearer relies on, and is intended to rely on, mutual contextual beliefs(MCBs) to determine, from the meaning of an utterance, what the speaker is saying. Understanding and speaking an utterance are accomplished by linguistic presumption and communicative presumption.

The speeeh act schema represents the pattern of the hearer's inference in identifying the speaker's communicative intentions. This pattern of inference is complex, and to attribute it to people in ordinary communication situations is to impute to them complex cognitive abilities. The pattern of Bach and Harnish(1979) makes a great contribution to a strong assumption about the human cognitive abilities involved in communication. In addition, social behavior is not always communicative because people need not intend that others make inferences on the basis of their behavior; however, it is possible and usual for social behavior to be communicative. Moreover, lack of linguistic knowledge and of social knowledge generally makes it not only impossible to know what to do when, but also impossible to form communicative intentions or recognize others' intentions.

The linguistic meaning of an expression is simply the meaning or meanings of that expression in some linguistic system. The *Semantic Theory* is considered to be decompositional in case the linguistic meaning represents the meaning of a syntactically or morphologically unstructured item as being composed of more than one semantic element; that is, the semantic representation is complex(Katz, 1977). On the other hand, the *Inferential Theory* is concerned with practicing semantics, and entailments. Fodor(1975) indicates some advantages to inference rules over lexical decomposition.

To summarize these views, if a theory contains just inference rules, it would not posit a sharp distinction between the logical and nonlogical vocabulary. Although the definition is a symmetrical relation, entailment is not, and there is no reason why analyticity must rest upon symmetrical relations. In addition, conversational implicature shows interesting relations between the structure and the function of language, and plays a significant role in language change, triggering syntactic and semantic changes (Levinson, 1983).

B. FOUR APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION STUDY

In the development of language learning theories, behaviorism and cognitivism are of great significance. The behaviorists assume that learning is basically a process of conditioning; through a series of stimulus-response situations learners can be led to the desired goal. They see the important external factors in the language learning process as the frequency and imitation with reinforcement necessary for higher level of language proficiency(Skinner, 1957). Learning takes place as the bond between the stimulus and its associated response is being formed. Thus, behavioristic view is one of providing the learner with sufficient practice to acquire the appropriate language response.

The Cognitivistic view, on the contrary, is based on neuro-psychological concepts of thought and language; it is said to be mentalistic. Cognitivists emphasize the mental processes underlying language response and 'meaningful learning'(Ausubel, 1968) in the learning process. Knowing a language implies not just the performance of language-like behaviors, but an underlying competence that makes such performance possible (Spolsky, 1966). Mentalists insist that the ability to learn language is innate, and the LAD enables the child to make hypotheses about the structure of language in general, and about the structure of language learning in particular(Chomsky, 1959, 1965). The subconscious hypotheses are tested through the use of language, and are continuously matched with the new linguistic input gained through listening to what is said in the immediate environment.

These behavioristic and cognitive views of language acquisition have their own strengths and weaknesses, and as such have been subject to much criticism. As a result, sociolinguistics and pragmatics were recently introduced as a the plausible and efficient way to explain the process of SLA. Since the theoretical or methodological approaches vary from viewpoint to viewpoint, so do research designs.

Hakuta and Cancino (1977) distinguish four different approaches: *contrastive analysis*, *error analysis*, *performance analysis*, and *discourse analysis*. This distinction reflects historical perspectives. Before the 1970's, SL learning was largely related to teaching, on the basis of the hypothesis that SL learners would learn what they were taught and would learn nothing untaught. After 1970, SL learners were focused on by researchers. This shift of viewpoint reflected not only the increased interest in natural SL learning but also its link with the research into L1 acquisition and learning which had previously developed (Ervin-Tripp, 1974). A review of past and present research theories will provide a clear perspective.

1. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS (CA)

The contrastive analysis(CA) approach is mainly concerned with similarities and differences between two or more languages, explaining a number of SL learning behaviors. This means that the main interest of CA is not in the SL learner, but is aimed at the interpretation of linguistic universals and specific characteristics of languages (Corder, 1973), the explanation and production of problems in SL learning, and the development of course materials for language teaching (Fries, 1945).

The CA approach is based on the notion that the greater the difference between the two systems, the greater the learning problems and interferences. Such problems can be brought to light by "the comparison of any two languages and cultures to discover and describe the problems that the speakers of one of the languages will have in learning the other"(Lado, 1957, p. vii). The problems resulting from the comparison of the SL with the L1 must be considered as hypothetical. It is assumed that interference phenomena occur at a phonological, morphosyntactic and lexical level (Weinrich, 1953).

Current studies, however, offer evidence that structural differences or similarities between L1 and SL do not provide a reliable means of predicting developmental tendencies in SLA (Felix, 1981). In addition, even though the CA approach has influenced the L1 learning and teaching for more than two decades, converting descriptive data from CA has played only a remedial and prescriptive role in SLA. Moreover, systematic research results based on CA have been criticized by the applied linguists and SL teachers, for SL teaching methods and materials of CA are less effective than ones based on different principles and approaches.

2. ERROR ANALYSIS (EA)

The error analysis(EA) approach has developed from a weaker version of the CA hypothesis. This approach maintains that some SL learning problems can be explained or predicted on the basis of linguistic differences between L1 and SL. SL learners' errors are too complicated to be easily identified, as the notion of *error* is dependent on the medium (spoken or written language), the social-context (formal or informal), and the relation between speaker and hearer (symmetrical or asymmetrical). The interpretations about the learning process induce inferences of output errors made by SL learners.

Error analysts are concerned with the language behavior of children and SL learners which is characterized as the subconscious application of deviations from the rule systems. They argue against CA approaches in that CA predicts SL learning problems which do not occur and do not predict learning problems which do occur (Sharwood-Smith, 1979). SL learners have the cognitive capacity for making hypotheses about the target language they are learning, and use strategies. Developmental errors and interference are considered as inevitable, necessary, and systematic stages in the SL learning or acquisition process (Abbott, 1980; Taylor, 1975).

Van Els et al.(1984, p. 52) distinguish errors of competence from errors of performance as follows:

> (1) errors of competence are the result of the application of rules by the SL learner which do not correspond to the SL norm; (2) errors of performance are the result of mistakes in language use and manifest themselves as repeats, false starts, corrections or slips of the tongue(p. 52)

A distinction between actual and intended SL utterances made it possible to identify errors of competence(Corder, 1973). However, the classification of deviations by EA cannot describe SL learning phenomena. Interference does not seem to be an appropriate framework to explain or predict the types of errors in the SL learners' utterances. Rather, their errors reflect general mechanisms of language acquisition (Dulay et al., 1982; Felix, 1981). The distinction between errors of competence and those of performance must have a limitation (Bell 1974). EA cannot provide any insights into the course of SL learning processes (Dulay & Burt, 1974).

Redundant errors from input(Corder, 1973) may to some extent influence the learner's learning processes in the viewpoint of EA (Pae, 1984; Stenson, 1971). One of the limitations of the EA hypotheses is that the notion of error does not consider the learner's point of view, but the native speaker's viewpoint. Some weaknesses inevitably lead to the appearance of other new approaches.

3. PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS(PA)

Since it is necessary to understand the developmental aspect of SLA, various attempts to describe the dynamic process of SLA and learning interlanguage have been made. Among them is the notion of *Interlanguage* (Selinker, 1972; Corder, 1981) which is similar to that of 'Idiosyncratic' (Corder, 1971), or 'Approximate system' (Nemser, 1971). The basic idea is that SL learners construct an internal grammar on the grounds of the SL input they receive. A grammar is reconstructed in subsequent stages, and will gradually approximate language systems of native speakers.

Performance analysis(PA) is largely concerned with the developmental aspects and the order or sequence of SL learners' morpheme acquisition. On the other hand, an increasing interest in SL learners' input, and the necessity of adequate research designs are manifested as characteristics of PA. In this sense, the Input Hypothesis by Krashen(1983) seems to play a significant role in SLA research. This hypothesis declares that "we acquire by understanding input language that contains structures a bit beyond our current level of competence; speech is a result of acquisition, not a cause; if input is understood, and if there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided"(Krashen, 1983, p. 259). This is supported by studies of 'caretaker speech' in L1 acquisition and simplified codes in SL performance, as well.

PA also stresses learning processes and variabilities (Bloom, Lightbown, & Hood, 1978; McLaughlin, 1978, 1981; McLaughlin et al., 1983; Schachter & Rutherford, 1979; Seliger, 1983, 1984; Sharwood-Smith, 1981). Tarone(1979) suggests that every speaker shifts linguistic and phonetic variables, if the following factors change: (a) social status of interlocutors, (b) language medium, (c) topic, (d) linguistic task, (e) physical surroundings, and (f) amount of attention paid to speech. Such varieties do not only have "a diachronic, but also a synchronic dimension"(Van Els et al., 1984, p. 69).

These new trends involve shifts of research design in SL performance studies including choice of period of time, informants and data collection procedures (Burt & Dulay, 1980). Since a longitudinal L1 acquisition study by Brown(1973), researchers have paid more attention to patterns and routines in L1 or SL acquisition and learning. The literatures on L1 or SL acquisition imply that SL learners rely more on routines and patterns than do L1 learners.

Cross-sectional techniques have also been adopted in SLA studies, and induced methodological devices to support or argue against longitudinal designs. Nevertheless, these two designs have paid too much attention to syntactic, and morphological studies, rather than to lexical and phonological aspects. This indicates that PA is based on the 'reductionist'(Lewis & Cherry, 1977)[2] position.

The overemphasis on the discrete, not integrated, analysis of IL is not sufficient to account for SL learning and development. Consequently, PA is also faced with some criticism and has limitations in terms of SLA research.

4. DISOURSE-FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS

The mastery of forms in interlanguage by SL learners is aimed at the accomplishment of communicative functions of language. This implies that language, cognition, and social interaction influence each other, and are somewhat interdependent. Language development and cognition can be explained in conjunction with social interaction. This is why SLA research needs to reflect the knowledge available from the fields of sociolinguistics, sociology, and pragmatics in the functional domain of interlanguage development.

The analysis of the functions of language is referred to as discourse analysis (Brown, 1980). The study of language in context, as more than a sentence-level phenomenon, should offer a deeper insight into the meaning of utterances than the study of language in a sentence. Van Els et al.(1984) indicate that the context of language can be considered both from a linguistic and from a social perspective:

> (a) in most situations of language use, utterances will be preceded and followed by other utterances, resulting in a dialogic or monologic *text*; (b) in all situations of language use, specific social relations between speaker and hearer will guide the structure of these utterances(p. 94).

Wagner-Gough (1975) claims that the acquisition of the form does not necessarily entail the simultaneous acquisition of its target-language function. Bickerton(1981) and Huebner(1983) assume that a true understanding of SL development can be obtained by consideration of SLA processes, and the analysis accomodates the dynamism of interlanguage development.

Kumpf(1984) proposes the 'discourse-functional' approach. Discourse-functional analyses provide evidence that interlanguages reflect discourse structure in ways which are characteristic of native languages, and that their grammar can be seen as a function of discourse. Hatch (1978) assumed "that in second language learning one first learns how to manipulate structures, that one gradually builds up a repertoire of structures and then, somehow, learns how to put the structures to use in discourse"(p. 404). The function level of discourse, which exists between grammar and content, regulates any verbal interaction and has to be explored if the SL learner is to understand what goes on in discourses.

Discourse-functional analysis involves the identification of discourse modes in the data, such as narration, conversation, and exposition. The internal structure of a mode is then analysed through identification of coding points. Function is thus dealt with initially at the genre level. Beyond this level, internal structure is delineated in terms of a variety of linguistic coding devices. Kumpf(1984) analyzed conversational narratives in the English interlanguage of a single speaker. The devices included clause types and modes, tense-aspect categories, verb types, and verb forms, while Sato (1984) focused on past time reference in particular.

The discourse-functional approach has the advantage of being able to describe prelinguistic means of communicating meaning. However, the complexities of form/meaning mapping in language development require microanalysis of particular forms as they acquire new functions, lose old ones, and shift from old to new functions. Of particular interest is the process of transferring meanings or functional domains in discourse-pragmatic strategies into encoding in linguistic form(Long & Sato, 1984). Discourse and morphosyntax interact with each other and interactions occur at other levels. Although studies of these phenomena are in the early stage, the understanding and application of pragmatic perspectives and integrated analysis to interlanguage development seem necessary and sufficient for SLA research.

C. PRAGMATIC PERSPECTIVES IN SLA RESEARCH

Wittgenstein(1953) views the whole process of using words as 'language games' and part of an activity or form of life. Language games imply that language is used as a means to achieve some specific communicative and social functions.

Givón (1984) suggests the three major realms of systematic and distinct coding in human language are lexical semantics, propositional semantics, and discourse pragmatics. Lexical semantics is concerned with the storage of generic, culturally-shared knowledge embodied in the lexicon; propositional semantics deals with specific information in propositions expressed by syntactical sentences. Discourse pragmatics involves the sequencing or placing of atomic propositions within a proposition which is communicated in a large and open-ended complex.

As yet, SLA studies seem to have disregarded the pragmatic aspect and perspectives. Since "the pragmatic purpose of language is the final and ultimate objective of second language learners"(Brown, 1980, p. 189), this chapter will show some connections and the significance of pragmatic understanding and application to SLA.

1. PRAGMATIC VIEWPOINT

The meaning of pragmatics can be fully specified only relative to the context of an utterance; therefore, comprehension is an alloy of pragmatic and semantic matters. The distinction between sentence and utterance is of fundamental importance to both semantics and pragmatics. "A sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within grammatical theories, while an utterance is the issuance of a sentence, a sentence-analogue, or sentence-fragment, in a speech context" (Levinson, 1983, p. 18). This difference indicates the boundary between semantics and pragmatics, in that semantics is concerned with the meaning of a sentence, and pragmatics with contextual meaning of an utterance (Katz, 1977; Levinson, 1983).

The scope of pragmatics has been extended to the study of deixis(at least in part), implicature, presumption, speech acts, and aspects of discourse structure (Levinson, 1983). On the other hand, its scope is limited for as Levinson(1983) alludes "the upper bound of pragmatics is provided by the borders of semantics, and the lower bound by sociolinguistics (and perhaps psycholinguistics too)"(p. 27).

Pragmatics is interested in understanding an utterance and discourse. A good part of comprehension must be ascribed not to the rules of language that assign meanings to the sentences, but to our ability to somehow infer the speaker's intentions and literal meanings(Morgan, 1978). Such an ability is attributed not to a strictly linguistic ability, but to conversational implicature, the application of general strategies for inferring intentions to linguistic problems.

The inferences may rest in implicature and presuppositions. Implicature lies in some general principles, outside the structure of language, for co-operative interaction or maxims of conversation, and presents functional explanations of linguistic facts. In contrast to inferences, pre-supposition is detachable pragmatic inference. Pragmatic presuppositions can describe a relation between hearer-speakers' mutual knowledge and the contextual appropriateness or felicity of a sentence. For these reasons, pragmatics is also concerned with an analytic approach on the basis of contextual considerations. Pragmatics can interpret and describe the linguistic features in the discourse.

In light of pragmatic perspectives in either L1 or SL studies, the surface structure of a sentence in the context must convey not merely its literal meanings but also its prosodic features (stress, intonation, and other phonological nuances) and its nonverbal features. This is why even a single sentence must be actually interpreted in conjunction with the context of total discourse.

Personal deixis, spatial deixis, and social deixis may be included in pragmatic studies. For example, a SL learner not familiar with the contextual discourse constraints of the target language might "utter a sentence or sentences with perfect pronunciation and perfect grammar, but fail to achieve the communicative purpose"(Brown, 1980, p. 190), and may even appear to be impolitely critical. For this reason, it is necessary and important to understand significant variables in linguistic discourse, variables that comprise communicative competence in the course of understanding the principles of SL learning and teaching.

The acquisition of concepts and rules of speech acts may be essential to language acquisition (Bates, 1976; Bruner, 1975). The description of speech acts concerns mapping utterances into speech act categories and predicting the functions of sentences in context. Wittgenstein's(1953) notion of language game implies not the limited functions of speech acts, but a variety of creative speech events or frames. The interpretation of utterances according to the context or speech event is based on deictic information. Thus, in order to investigate how people comprehend and interpret what is said to them, the pragmatic approach is very worthwhile.

2. DISCOURSE AND CONVERSATIONAL ANALYSIS

SL learners learn how to converse, and how to interact verbally,and out of this interaction, syntactic structures can develop. Neither syntactic structures nor speech acts alone can provide us with the interpretation of most sentences.

(A) STRUCTURES OF DISCOURSE AND CONVERSATION

Akmajian, Demers, and Harnish(1984) define discourse as connected sequences of sentences (or sentence fragments) produced by a single speaker, and conversation as structured sequences of expressions by more than a single speaker. SL learners usually engage in conversations, discussions, games, stories, and jokes in a larger framework of discourse of highly diverse, organized social activity. Thus, SL school learners' speech acts and thematic structures may work within a larger framework of classroom discourse.

Words have meaning but carry no information by themselves, unless they are embedded within propositions, and the information in turn cannot carry a proposition without reference to discourse context. Discourse is cumulative in that new information is added to old information (Karttunen, 1974) and coherent with long-term memory of stable generic information and specific information.

The relativity of coherence involves a deliberate simplification of the thematic structure of the discourse as shown in Figure 1.

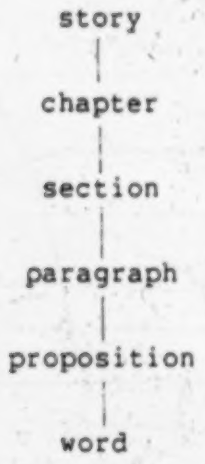


Figure 1. The thematic structure of discourse

Note. modified from Givón(1984, p. 243)

Coherence with the preceding discourse and coherence with the subsequent discourse of the speaker and the hearer consist of the discourse transaction. It is likely that discourse has a deeper, hierarchic structure than Figure 1 shows. Coherent speaking is a skill to acquire so as to achieve successful and satisfying discourses in human interactions. Yet little is known of how the skill develops since it is difficult to define and measure change in coherence according to situations and moments.

On the other hand, the nature of conversation includes a reasonable number of participants, pragmatic and socio-cultural convention, and conversational rules. This implies that conversation is regarded as "the most significant locus of the functional use of the rules of discourse"(Brown, 1980, p. 196). Conversation, or spoken discourse, often implies interactive discourse, whereas text implies non-interactive discourse.

In conversational discourse, the major hearer's concern is how to perceive the coherent relation of the new proposition to the background of the preceding discourse. And the speaker's concern is how to produce the subsequent discourse with firm coherent relations to what has preceded.

(B) DISCOURSE VS. CONVERSATIONAL ANALYSIS

Brown and Yule(1983) suggest that "doing discourse analysis certainly involves doing syntax and semantics, but it primarily consists of doing pragmatics"(p. 26). The discourse analyst describes what speakers and hearers are doing in terms of reference, presupposition, implicature, and inference. Reference is treated as an action on the part of the speaker/writer in discourse analysis. Conversational implicatures are pragmatic aspects of meaning and have certain identifiable characteristics. The discourse analyst treats conversational implicatures as inherently indeterminate and often has to rely upon a process of inference to reach an interpretation of utterances or of the connections between utterances.

There seem to be two directions in conversational analysis: macroanalysis and microanalysis. The former deals with the nature of conversation and the latter is concerned with the internal structure of conversation. By nature, the latter is more appropriate for SLA research. Conversational analysis employs inductive methods to search for "recurring patterns in conversations and emphasizes the interactional and inferential consequences of the choice between alternative utterance"(Levinson, 1983, p. 287). Since the early work of Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson(1974), conversational analysis is more highly developed.

Conversational analysts are concerned with defining the size of the basic unit in conversation : *utterance*, or *turn* (Sacks, 1972; Schegloff, 1968, 1972), and a smaller unit, *move* (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Conversational analysis provides valuable insights into the use of discourse, and forms a basis for the development in applied linguistics. The use of a discourse model by both children and adults (Allwright, 1980; Hatch, 1978) for the acquisition of language presents many implications for SLA research.

Schegloff & Sacks (1973) and Sacks et al.(1974) have studied how we open and close conversation. Sacks et als'(1974) observations illustrate turn-taking systems. Their propositions can be condensed as follows:

- Speaker-change recurs, or at least occurs.
- Overwhelmingly, one party talks at a time.
- Occurrences of more than one speaker at a time are common, but brief.
- Turn-transition with no gap and no overlap are common.
- Turn order is not fixed, bur varies.
- Turn size is not fixed, but varies.
- Length of conversation is not specified in advance.
- What parties say is not specified in advance.

- Relative distribution of turns is not specified in advance.
- Number of parties can vary.
- Talk can be continuous or discontinuous.
- Turn-allocation techniques are used.
- Various turn-constructional units are employed for the turn-holder's production.
- Repair mechanisms exist for dealing with turn-taking errors and violations.

The rerun system (how speakers fix up 'trouble spots' to make their messages clear to the hearer and/or to themselves) has been investigated (Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977; Schwartz, 1980), and Brown(1980) has synthesized conversational rules. Besides studies of natural discourse, SLA classroom discourse has been studied in terms of linguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

To conclude, although there are several system constraints for conversation and, in a broad sense, communication -back-channel feedback, turnover signals, or norms - the way SL learners use such constraints may vary between specific social, cultural, or linguistic groups. In general, discourse research on SLA deals with conversational analysis, unequal power discourse, text analysis, smaller speech events/acts, contextual analysis, and language acquisition discourse(Hatch, 1983).

3. DISCOURSE STRATEGIES

Psychologists, sociolinguists, linguists, discourse analysts, and pragmatists concerned with understanding discourse all agree that interpretation of longer stretches of text involves simultaneous processing of multi-level information. Since speech is purpose-governed and conscious, elements of purpose must influence the choice of genre. Each genre has a distinguishable set of characteristics. "A choice of genre has a controlling or restricting effect upon the speaker's use of grammatical features"(Pickering, 1980, p. 77).

The use of a different surface structure of language may somewhat disguise the real deep structure motive. But, the genre can frequently allow a speaker/hearer to guess at the speaker's purpose. In determining the meaning in a context, the hearer relies on schemata or interpretive frames based on experience with similar situations and on grammatical and lexical knowledge.

Fillmore(1979) enumerates from observation the strategies in successful learning as (1) actively taking turns in the interaction by paying attention to what is going on, (2) guessing at the topic on the basis of contextual information, (3) stretching the learner's repertoires of expressions, (4) focusing on important points, and (5) cooperating with the other speaker for 'repair' and understanding. There is a need for a sociolinguistic theory which explains the communicative functions of linguistic variability and its relation to speakers' goals. Gumperz(1985) also indicates that "lexically acquired knowledge of idioms, greetings, conversational openings and closings, as well as knowledge of social categories of speakers and audiences and of relevant behavioral norms, also play an essential part" in conversational interactions"(p. 43).

Researchers investigating connections between perception of surface linguistic signs and interpretation are somewhat similar to descriptivists. Researchers may not perceive communicative cues accurately or be able to utilize their background knowledge to determine if some distinctions carry signalling value in the here-and-now situation. Descriptivists can solve this problem by seeking systematic connections between their informants' ability to perceive and discriminate contrasts at the level of sound and meaning.

Interpretations are based on perception of linguistic signs - inference. Pragmatic inferences, based on implicit world knowledge which is not essential for the processing of the sentence, provide information which elaborates the meaning. Inferencing is a very important part of conversational and discourse analysis, but inferencing in a SL is difficult at the propositional, enabling, and pragmatic inference levels[3] (Hildyard & Olson, 1978), and at both the processing and the production levels.

If the interactive strategies and the constraints governing participants' strategies vis-a-vis each other are not considered, they cannot interpret the human ability to contextualize interpretation. Inferencing looks at the processes that allow a speaker/hearer to turn utterances into cohesively related conversation.

A conversational analysis tends to focus directly on the strategies that govern the actor's use of lexical, grammatical, sociolinguistic, and other knowledge in the production and interpretation of a message in context. Linguistic rules and social norms can be regarded as "constraints on message form and content which, when not observed or violated, may lead to interspeaker differences in interpretation or otherwise interfere with the quality of interaction" (Gumperz, 1985, p. 35).

The assumptions and strategies on which conversational and functional researchers base their interpretation in discourse settings are amenable to analysis. Therefore, the analyst's work is to make an in-depth study of selected instances of verbal interaction, observe whether or not speakers and hearers understand each other, elicit participants' interpretations of ongoing discourses, deduce the social assumptions of the speaker, and judge how linguistic signs communicate. These inductive methods which consider the various contextual frames and perspectives in terms of which verbal signs can be perceived, grouped together, and explained may yield important results.

4. REGISTER AND SOCIAL DEIXIS

When conversational analysis is applied to the study of SLA, language acquisition discourse research can also be taken into consideration, for that research deals with how input to a learner is structured in discourse. Snow(1977) observed 'baby talk' and 'motherese' and suggested that language used in communication with young children is modified in specific ways.

Brown(1977) claims that modification in register, such as motherese, serves two functions; one is to promote communication and the other is to express affective characteristics. We use different styles or registers of language according to the speech context(Arthur et al., 1980; Brown, 1980). Joos (1967) presents four scales of speech styles using the criterion of formality as shown Table 2.

Table 2. Four scales of speech styles'

AGE	STYLE	BREADTH	RESPONSIBILITY
senile	frozen	genteel	best
mature	formal	puristic	better
teenage	consultative	standard	good
child	casual	provincial	fair
baby	intimate	popular	bad

Note: 'from *The Five Clocks*, by M. Joos, 1967, p. 11

Frozen style, for print and for proclamation, can be defined by the absence of authoritative intonation in the text, and the absence of cross-questions between the reader/hearer and the author and by the absence of intonation and participation. Formal style is designed to inform and is ancillary in consultation, incidental in casual discourse, and absent in intimacy. Consultative style may be employed when the speaker supplies background information and the addressee participates continuously. Casual style is for friends, acquaintances, insiders. There is no absence of background information and no reliance on hearers' participation. An intimate utterance avoids giving the addressee information from outside of the speaker's skin.

This typology by Joos(1967) implies that a speaker usually shifts from one style to another, perhaps even within a sentence. There seems no regulation to confine the speaker to one speech style. The speaker's attitude to participants and information and other factors influence the style mixture and shift. But "normally only two neighboring styles are used alternately, and it is anti-social to shift two or more steps in a single jump, for instance from casual to formal"(Joos, 1967, p. 19). Gumperz(1985) also advocates style variants in that, to identify simultaneous shifts in several variants as a contrast between discrete styles or variants, speakers must control a range of variables and share expectations concerning sequential co-occurrences among features as distinct levels of signalling.

Another remarkable phenomenon of input modification takes place between language and context through deictic information. The pragmatic perspective in interlanguage development must include social deixis in particular. Social deixis concerns "the encoding of social distinctions that are relative to participant-roles, particularly aspects of the social relationship holding between speaker and addressee(s) or speaker and some referent"(Levinson, 1983, p. 63).

Social deixis is subdivided into relational and absolute. The relational variety is closely related to interactional aspects and pragmatics, and the relations are those between:

(i) speaker and referent (e.g. referent honorifics)
(ii) speaker and addressee (e.g. addressee honorific)
(iii) speaker and bystander (e.g. bystander or audience honorifics)
(iv) speaker and setting (e.g. formality levels)

(Levinson, 1983, p. 90)

Honorifics, honorific concord, and formalities are incorporated in lexical alternatives, in morphology, in particles or affixes(Cho, 1982; Lee, 1973; Suh, 1984), in segmental phonology, in prosodics, and in a mixture of these(for example, Javanese, Japanese, Madurese, Korean)(Levinson, 1983)[4]. The decision to be polite or rude, pleasant or aggressive, respectful or disrespectful, and the assigning of attitude to speaker, audience, and culture are involved in strategic thinking and viewpoint according to interlanguage development.

Certain modifications occur in speech when language is addressed to SL learners and, in spite of many differences, there are strong similarities in speech modifications(Hatch, 1983). These modifications may occur as implicit or explicit communication interactions, and/or as expressions of empathy or affection. In order to facilitate communication, the modifications are regarded as a natural process and product of the negotiation and adjustment of communication.

This study will deal with honorifics as part of deixis, in order to understand developmental aspects of pragmatic acquisition by the children who are learning Korean as a SL. The discourse adjustment and the use of honorific expressions will provide children learning L1 or SL with ideal opportunities to acquire the structure of their target language, and the form of language through the process of comprehension and cultural understanding.

5. DEVELOPMENTAL PRAGMATIC PERSPECTIVES

As we have seen in previous sections, pragmatics are concerned with the relation of linguistic forms and communicative function to discourse contexts. It also involves the manner in which speakers use the sentences of a language to achieve successful communications and reflects a variety of styles or register. The variation emerges in diachronic and synchronic dimensions. Thus far, there have been very few studies based upon developmental pragmatic perspectives.

SLA studies based on developmental pragmatics must include cognitive, semantic, functional, pragmatic, and cultural aspects of language, because the knowledge of communicative context is important for both understanding and dealing with a SL learner's language learning situation. Also, when researchers observe the communicative behaviors in discourse contexts, they frequently discover characteristic patterns of interaction. Therefore, the rationale for a developmental pragmatic approach may be found in the following two theories: *communication theory* and *interactional theory*. Communication theory assumes that "communication does not take place in isolation" and "as people communicate over time, they inevitably develop patterns of interaction"(Bowers & Courtright, 1984, p. 23). This hypothesis implies that a pragmatic aspect in communication occurs over time in the social, communicative context. People are incessantly seeking to reduce uncertainty or doubt by a process of inquiry. Accordingly, speaker-hearers are constantly faced with a number of alternatives in a sequence of communicative events.

Thus, developmental pragmatic researchers may sometimes find it possible to manipulate variables, and to perform such manipulations on the content and form of symbolic messages. As similar sequences of messages occur, characteristic patterns develop and redundancies in interaction can be observed. People have the ability to choose from among alternative behaviors.

When people socially interact with each other, they choose a single behavior and make purposeful choices. An act uttered by usage will be "both communicative and interactive if it is intentional and influential" (Littlejohn, 1983, p.91). An interactional paradigm by John-Steiner & Tatter(1983) provides an integrated assumption for language development theories. They postulate the interaction among language, cognition, and social knowledge as follows:

1. The development of human cognitive and linguistic processes is effectually and causally linked with complex social and cultural practices.
2. An explanatory account cannot state the character of language development in itself apart from its relations, but rather must state an organized system of interactive relations as a whole in terms of which the development of language may be explained.
3. The prolonged dependence of young children on their caretaker is a basic condition of human life.
4. A requisite for the adequate account of language development is a unification in analysis of social, cultural processes and conditions with cognitive, psychological processes and conditions.
5. The internalization of the culturally prevalent

> semiotic system links human cognitive and linguistic development to its interpersonal sources. (pp. 83-93)

The developmental pragmatic researcher may also consider "the social and psychological world in which the language users operate at any given time, and which is shaped both by culture-specific values and expectations, and by cognitive and interactional processes"(Ochs, 1979a, p. 2). Children as well as SL learners are likely to be sensitive to a network of conventions of shared understanding underlying their verbal communications and their social lives, and shape or modify their speech behavior accordingly (Fathman, 1975).

Developmental pragmatics investigates this sensitivity and its relations to the structure of language over time. It tries to examine the young child's sensitivity to the listener's knowledge (cf. Ochs, Schieffelin, & Platt, 1979), to the setting, and to events (Greenfield, 1979). It also explores the fundamental uses of language, such as those of referring, predicting, requesting (cf. Bates, Camaioni, & Volterra, 1979), querying, denying and rejecting (cf. Keller-Cohen, Chamler, & Remler, 1979; Volterra and Antinucci, 1979) and the role of the caregiver in the acquisition of these uses of language. Most of these studies are based on children's L1 acquisition. Developmental pragmatic studies in L1 acquisition of early childhood shed light on the possibilities of their application to SLA or IL development research in terms of pragmatics.

NOTE

1. Bain(1983) cites that "Vygotsky's recognition that *behind all high mental processes stand real relations among people* is the leitmotiv of sociolinguistic thought"(p. xxii).

2. Lewis and Cherry(1977) suggest three models of language acquisition research. The reductionist model postulates that language and cognitive and social knowledge exist independent of one another. This model excludes social and cognitive factors in SLA studies, and may ascribe causality only to the individual's existing linguistic system. The interactional model assumes that language and social interaction and cognitive knowledge are interrelated in a unidimensional plain. Social and cognitive knowledge are each greatly affected by language factors, but language, social interaction, and cognitive knowledge are still separate. The integrated model hypothesizes that individuals have an integrated system of social, cognitive, and language knowledge. The integrated system is essential but is differentiated and specialized. The integrated basis is called communicative competence.

3. Propositional inferences are logically and necessarily obtained from a given statement, which includes transitive relations, implicature verbs, comparatives, and class inclusion. Enabling inferences offer causal relationships between concepts or events. Pragmatic inferences, based on implicit world knowledge which is not essential for the processing of the sentence, provide information which elaborates the meaning.

4. Levinson(1983) declares that socially deictic information can be encoded just about anywhere in the linguistic system, and there is scarcely a single sentence of, for example, Japanese, Javanese or Korean, that can be properly described from a strictly linguistic point of view without an analysis of social deixis.

Chapter III

RESEARCH DESIGN

Basically, this research was designed to explore the question, what can we learn about beginning language acquisition by observing and then analyzing children's use of the target language? To accomplish that purpose, the children in this study were observed in natural language situations. The data collection procedures were drawn from several different methods which were qualitative in nature, and the data collected were subjected to several different kinds of analyses. In this chapter, the natural language situations are described and both the data collection and the analysis procedures are explained. The results of a pilot study are also made available.

A. SAMPLE CHILDREN

The sample children of this study were chosen from two SL classrooms. In this study, SL classrooms were divided as follows: one classroom had children who were learning ESL(English as a second language) in a public grade school in Edmonton; the other classroom had children who were learning KSL (Korean as a second language) in the Korean Language School in Edmonton, Canada.

The ESL class included three children who had moved to Canada from a country which did not use English as its first language. The children were in the first term at the

Canadian school. The children in this group had lived in Edmonton and used English for less than six months before the observation started. These children were learning English during or after regular school lessons, in order to facilitate and increase their English fluency for participation in the classroom and for participation in the broader society. There was also some focus on their acquiring the culture of their new society.

Two of the three children in the ESL classroom were brother(C) and sister(P), and the other a cousin(B). Their family backgrounds were similar, and they were from the working class. These three children began to study English at the same time. Children B and C were eleven years of age, and were in the same fifth grade class. Their parents could not speak English, and were also learning English in a public institution. The child B appeared to be shy and introspective, but diligent and active in learning English. He seemed to have a good memory. He looked a little short for his age, and was observed enjoying walking around with other ethnic students or younger students during recess or lunch time. The child C was the tallest of the three ESL students. He was a little quiet and reserved in the classroom, but was eager about participating in his peer group activities. More recently he had been displaying more confidence in learning of English. The child P, a girl student, was nine years old and in the third grade. She was C's younger sister. She sometimes looked a little more active than the two boys. She tried to express herself in the ESL lessons, and in her regular classroom she kept company with an interpreter who would help her with her school work. She did not appear to like to play with other classmates.

The Korean language school had six classes, and the selected class consisted of twenty-three children. The three children who were chosen from the KSL classroom were learning the Korean language after their regular schoolday on Friday evenings, in order to learn more about their family's ethnic culture and language system - a voluntary course in a sense. In the Korean Language School system, one term meant one grade. When a child completed one term, she or he was able to go on to the next grade according to level of fluency. The three sample children in the KSL classroom had been learning Korean for approximately six months. The three children observed in this classroom were Canadian-born but whose parents were immigrants from Korea. They were from the working class, and did not speak Korean often in the family society. Two of the sample children were brothers.

The child referred to as S1 was ten years old, and in the fifth grade of an elementary school. He was a little shy and introspective, and he did not seem to want to keep company with other students. The child called S2 is S1's younger brother. He looked a little more active than S1 and seemed to like to play with his peer group. He was eight years old but appeared to be a little short for his age. He tried to express himself as often as possible in Korean during the classroom discourse. The child, S3, was eight years old and in the third grade. He looked a little tough, and not so active, but expressive. Even though he sometimes played with his classmates or peer groups, he tended to keep to himself.

All the three students were from similar social home background. Their parents had been living in English-speaking Canada for more than ten years. Thus, the children's native language is English. Their mothers, if not their fathers, wanted to communicate and converse with them in Korean. Their attitude toward learning KSL seemed to be positive and optimistic, even though they were not always enthusiastic. They accepted learning KSL as a reality, and tried to be faithful to their parents' wishes, although they were not always successful.

B. SAMPLE CONTEXTS

Context' can be defined as those parts of linguistic and environmental features that form part of the language user's world. Context includes, minimally, "language user's beliefs and assumptions about temporal, spatial, and social settings; prior, ongoing, and future actions(verbal, nonverbal)" (Ochs, 1979a, p. 5).

In this study, the observations took place over a four month period. When the data were analyzed, it was found that one could discern three temporal sub-settings according to developmental stages: the beginning stage, the intermediate stage, and the advanced stage. These sub-settings were used in the discussion of the findings. The spatial settings of this study consisted of the classroom and interview situations. The social settings involved the two-person interactions in the classroom, in the interviews and during classroom activities.

Cazden(1983, p. 56) has commented that "to assume that a classroom is like a culture highlights the process of inducting new members, with this metaphor, change is expected only in those who are becoming members, not in the culture itself." Learning a SL was viewed as a process of learning to understand and use the SL for communication in a second culture. Thus, the second culture which is directly or indirectly exposed to SL learners consists of its social, historical, and geographical phenomena, almost all of which are incorporated into its language. Culture represented an important context for this study.

The beginning ESL learners in this study were learning English in their community school system. Canadian society offers many institutions and organizations, both formal and informal, which provide ESL beginners with an opportunity to learn English as a target language.

The KSL classroom in this study was intended for conditions where the target language is not widely used in the broad society and used very restrictively at home and in the ethnic group. The KSL learning was supported with permission of the family, the ethnic group, Heritage society, and the general society. Classrooms were very special cultures and indeed were a community of people who were themselves changing. In these contexts, the researcher decided what kinds of events to sample. Since the researcher was specifically interested in language use through interaction in the classroom, he was able to collect several reports of events in a short period of time.

Ochs(1979a), who emphasizes the importance of contexts in developmental pragmatic studies, states that context consists of environmental features, and adds that language itself can count as context. Language itself was considered as a context, which includes language development, language modification, and the shift of registers. Units of this context were words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and discourses.

C. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

There is no hard-and-fast rule on the grammar of formal and informal collection of data. Nor is there any limit, in principle, on the length of the string. A particular research project might combine several approaches in any number of possible ways depending on the length of time available, and the number of researchers involved. In this study, a number of data-collecting techniques were employed to obtain the information for the analysis. Either ethnomethodology or ethnography was not of interest in itself. It was a means to "get some specific information to fuel theoretical discussion"(Agar, 1980, p. 23).

1. BASIC CONCEPTS FOR RESEARCH DESIGN

Traditional research has generally been framed within a perspective which is based on hypotheses testing. Recently, some researchers have become interested in designing studies without any preconceptions about what might be found. In such studies, they progressively identify variables, define them, and then seek to understand predictor-criterion relationships among them.

Glaser and Strauss(1967) state that the advantages of an ethnomethodological approach[2] over a prestructured study are that the ethnomethodological approach allows substantive concepts and hypotheses to emerge first, on their own, thus enabling the analyst to ascertain which, if any, existing formal theory may help her or him produce generative theories. It enables the researcher to be more objective and less theoretically biased. The ethnomethodological approach to classroom research is procedurally systematic. What is observed, and the data collected from its procedures, are free to vary during the course of the observations as a reflection of the observer's progressive understanding of what she or he is studying.[3] This differs from experimental research in that the ethnomethodological approach usually adopts 'research-then-theory strategy'(Reynolds, 1971, p. 140).

To date longitudinal and cross-sectional descriptive approaches to developmental research have frequently been employed and there have been a number of arguments raised about the relative advantages and disadvantages of each technique. One problem is that these two techniques have not always produced similar results. One way of avoiding some of the disadvantages of both the longitudinal and the cross-sectional design is to use the combined, so-called, quasi-longitudinal design. In the quasi-longitudinal method, cross-sectional samples of language behavior of different groups of SL learners, at earlier or later stages of development, are collected simultaneously and compared with each other(Van Els et al., 1984). This study will select six sampling people from two different classrooms, and observe and record the differences among these people and groups.

Naturalistic observation is a technique that enables both quantitative and qualitative researchers to collect data on naturally occurring behavior. This is due to the unobtrusiveness of the observer and the lack of artificiality of the situation. Even though this approach is time consuming, naturalistic observation allows for an accurate description, and some weaknesses can be supplemented by the use of the field study method.

The field study approach is similar to naturalistic observation in that both are conducted in the real world, and avoid the criticism of artificiality of the environments in which the data are collected. However, field studies differ from naturalistic observation in some important respects. In field studies, the researcher intervenes, and actively interacts with subjects in the data collection. In addition, the observations of interest to the investigator are typically focused on a more specific aspect of behavior than are those in a naturalistic observation study. Besides, field studies use a variety of diverse approaches, whereas naturalistic observation uses one general procedure.

2. PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION

It seemed that participant observation was best suited for studying the face-to-face interactions of the SL children in this study. The researcher took a regular part in the SL classrooms and heard and observed natural conversation and classroom discourse between teachers and SL learners. Although this study was carried out through participant observation, there was considerable variation in the way in which the observation was conducted.

In classrooms, the researcher sat off to the side, and observed, tape-recorded, and took notes for reflection and data collection. The classroom discourse was sometimes simple in topic, or restricted by the range of the lesson, but outside discourse was varied depending on the context and events. The researcher followed the sample population, observed, tape-recorded if possible, and took notes. However, the researcher did not intentionally become directly involved with the sample population, for that interruption might have altered the quality of the on-going interaction.

The researcher attempted 'selective observations' (Spradley, 1980), and focused on:

a) Conversations between teachers and non-native speakers: opening, instruction, closing the lesson

b) Conversations between/among non-native speakers

c) Conversations between non-native speakers and native speakers.

3. INTERVIEWING

Observation and interviewing "mutually interact(ed) with each other" (Agar, 1980, p. 109), either simultaneously or sequentially, in the course of this study. The individual interviews with the six ESL and KSL children were carried out three times during this study. The first interview was planned in the first month of the observation. Interviewing was also carried out as a supplementary procedure for the data collection of individual linguistic data. The interviews of ESL beginners took place before or after school, and interviews with the KSL beginners took place during an appointed time. The location for the interview was chosen by the child so as to make the situation more comfortable.

The interviewer/researcher prepared some pictures and newspapers for eliciting a variety of language uses. The interviewing lasted approximately one half hour, because more time might have made the child bored or impatient. The content or topic of the interview was a personal history, daily life, sports, music, hobbies, and so on. Since shift of style or register was also a matter of concern to this study, the data proved important to this study. The unnaturalness of behavior in the interview was of no great importance, since behavior during the interview gave more information about a particular aspect of language use - the shift of style or register. The interviewer led the interviewee to use more complex syntactic structures as time advanced. The topics of the interviews were as follows:

(1) 1st Interview

- a) personal history
- b) daily home life
- c) school life
- d) tomorrow plan
- e) favorite sports
- f) hobbies

(2) 2nd Interview

- a) personal history(again)
- b) favorite sports(again)
- c) TV & radio programs
- d) weekend plan
- e) playing games
- f) contextual questions

(3) 3rd Interview

- a) school life
- b) cultural differences
- c) sports
- d) story telling
- e) modality

4. NOTE-TAKING

Field notes are the record of an ethnographer's observation, conversations, interpretations, and suggestions for future information to be gathered(Agar, 1980). These notes were useful during the analyses as a helpful adjunct in explaining and/or understanding the behavior of individuals and groups. The field notes consisted of: (1) ideas from observations to be followed up through interviews, or further observation/questions that came from interviews; and (2) things which were noticed in the classroom discourse and during interviews.

Notetaking in this study was principally accomplished by making extensive written notes, usually recording the researcher's observations as soon as possible after involvement or participation in the day's activities. Note-taking included memories of previously forgotten incidents, ideas for future analysis of the data, personal impressions and reactions, and reminders as to additional information needed.

5. TAPE RECORDING PROCEDURES

The researcher used audio and video tape-recording. The researcher regularly took part in the classroom during normal schooldays. Before the first observation, the classroom teacher was informed that the researcher would tape one or two hours of typical classroom activities. The teachers and the children knew that they were being recorded; however, in order not to disturb the teacher and the other children, the researcher was careful during the recording to insure that the tape recorder produced as few distraction as possible. If the observer sat near one or more of the subjects, they would not have seen the microphone, nor would they necessarily know that the tape recorder was turned on. During the interviewing, the same strategies were used.

Video tape recordings were overtly carried out. The researcher's experience had shown that many children liked to have their pictures taken, even if there were individual differences in personality and attitude. At the beginning, the children felt a little awkward about the video recording, but the unnaturalness of their attitude diminished over time.

The tape recordings of spontaneous speech samples from the six SL beginners were collected for more than four months, and reflected important recurring cultural situations, interactions, and language use, both in the classroom and interviews. The recordings reflected the sociological, intellectual, and linguistic maturation and development of the children along with situational changes. Language samples were recorded continuously on a weekly basis. This provided continuous discourses so that context and discourse history might be examined.

D. TREATMENT OF THE DATA

The data from the audio- and video-tapes were transcribed by the researcher and several others including informants. The field notes were used in developing the transcripts and helped the researcher interpret meanings of utterances and interactions.

1. DESCRIPTION OF THE TRANSCRIPTION METHOD

Ochs(1979b, 1985 personal communication) proposes that the transcriber should be conscious of the filtering process, and present the selection of transcription: (a)drawing on existing studies of SL learner's cognitive, linguistic, and social, pragmatic development; (b)the use of standard orthography rather than phonetic representation of sounds. There are a number of transcription methods, according to the purpose of the study. This study adopted the transcript method used by Ochs(1979b) and Schiefflin(1979).[4]

The transcript should meet practical as well as theoretical considerations, and express the relation between verbal and nonverbal behavior as accurately as possible. The main reason why this study will use the above method is that it enables the researcher to encode not only prior and subsequent behaviors but also co-occurrent and inter-occurrent behaviors as well, and displays clearly and systematically utterances and contexts.

2. TRANSCRIPTION PROCEDURES

In this study, four informants were employed, who were SL classroom teachers and transcribers. They were chosen from native English speakers and native Korean speakers. They helped with transcription and analysis. The importance of informants was in their accounts of the differences of two cultures. It was assumed that differences in informant accounts were not seen as a problem to be eliminated. Problems of reliability, error or misleading, and differences between reports and behavior are a normal part of human interaction. As time went on, the researcher began to learn about idiosyncratic and systematic differences. As soon as possible after completing the recording of a given sample, the researcher transcribed the audiotapes with the assistance of the informants. This initial transcription process included integrating the contextual notes with the speech as a first step in the development of the annotated transcript. During the transcription time, the researcher discussed aspects of the recorded interactions in order to gain a greater understanding of and generate further questions about recurring interaction patterns from which the researcher described the classification of speech acts and speech events.

After the initial transcription was processed, the researcher began a reliability check of the transcribed material with the help of another informant. This allowed the verification of the transcribed materials and also answered more sociolinguistic, pragmatic, and ethnographic questions. The transcription and annotation for this study had to be completed in the field situation. Given the complexities of natural conversation, a native speaker was needed to assist in the admittedly time-consuming process of preparing a transcript for the purpose of grammatical, pragmatic, and discourse analysis.

E. DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

From the number of approaches relevant to data analysis, this study utilized five specific areas as the framework for examining data. Data analyses were guided by the following questions which arose from the researcher's prior experiences with SLA studies and during the ongoing observations made in this study:

1. How do SL learners interact with environmental factors in the acquisition of the target language?
    a. What is the nature of class lessons and how do

class lessons function as speech events?

b. What are the features of the structure of classroom conversation and how do SL learners utilize classes for SLA?

c. How do SL learners interact with and adapt themselves to turn-taking systems?

2. What strategies do SL learners employ for SLA in the classroom?

   a. What strategies do SL learners use for listening and producing utterances in classroom interactions?

   b. How do SL learners choose communicative alternatives and particular morphosyntactic structures in terms of developmental pragmatics?

   c. How do SL learners map out the word order of the target language?

3. How do SL learners incorporate conversational strategies into linguistic communication?

   a. What functions does code-switching have, and how is it used as a discourse strategy?

   b. How do SL learners develop understanding and use of negation?

   c. How do SL learners acquire and modify the phonology of the target language?

4. How do SL learners develop interlanguage in terms of pragmatics?

   a. How do SL learners acquire and use personal deictic information?

b. How do SL learners acquire and develop the use of socially deictic information of the target language?

1. DATA CLASSIFICATION

The transcripts and field notes for the four months: Step I, II, and III. Normally, SL learners' development is classified as primitive or early, intermediate and advanced. This study focused only on the primitive or early stage. However, in order to understand development within that stage, the distinction of steps was based on the duration of exposure to the target language in the classroom. Step I involved the period of the first month observation of SL classrooms and the first interview. Step II referred to the second month's observation and the second interview, and Step III referred to the third and fourth months of observation and the third interview. Holidays during the observation were excluded from the count of the observation period, and so each stage does not indicate an exact one-month period.

The classroom discourses could be described in terms of temporal setting. The temporal settings were Opening, Instruction, and Closing. The instruction settings could be subcategorized as review and the lesson itself. On the basis of field notes and tape-recording, SL learners' interactional aspects of turn-taking systems were analyzed.

The speech samples from the classroom and the interviews were analyzed by utterance units. Whereas a sentence is an abstract theoretical entity which can be grammatically defined, an utterance is the production of a sentence. The word '*utterance*' is used in many ways in this study, but in this section the term 'utterance' is used to contrast with sentence.

Table 3. Number of utterances by SL students and teachers

	ESL				KSL		
	Class	IntV	(Tot)		Class	IntV	(Tot)
B	1208	251	1459	S1	108	747	855
C	1128	328	1456	S2	143	614	757
P	1159	205	1364	S3	142	656	798
				Other	172		172
All	397		397	All	66		66
TOT	3892	784	4676	TOT	631	2017	2648
T	6648		6648	T	1081		1081

Note. IntV = interview; B, C, P, S1, S2, S3 = Subjects; All = all students in the class; Other=other students

The number of utterances tape-recorded in the SL classrooms is shown in Table 3. The statistics indicate the total number of utterances which were analyzed in this study.

Lastly, the linguistic data were subcategorized into three facets according to the components and constituents of the target language: lexical, morphosyntactic, and phonological. The two different language systems of English and Korean, and their heterogeneous linguistic components were respectively analyzed in relation to language-specific elements. At the same time, interactional aspects were not separated in order to find some commonalities in language acquisition strategies.

2. DETAILED DATA ANALYSES

By means of the classification paradigms, the data were analyzed as follows:

(A) FUNCTIONAL ANALYSES OF SL CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Data analysis was carried out as to a general understanding of the relations between SL learners and their environment. The position of the SL classroom in a society was a first step in the understanding of SL classroom discourse. A general view of SL classroom discourse functions was derived from the data. This analysis was also concerned with an understanding of the interactional aspects between SL learners and classroom discourse organization. Such a microanalysis of classroom discourse structure was referred to the distribution of classroom discourse functions(Politzer et al., 1981) as follows:

(1) Elicitation: by questioning, by asking for a definition, by using imperatives, by prompting, asking for actions, and offering help
(2) Directing: stop talking
(3) Informing: fact giving, structuring, introducing or proving rationale for a topic
(4) Evaluating: giving an accepting statement to a response, accepting a response by repeating it, correcting by giving a non-accepting statement, correcting a response by altering it, and calling on another pupil

(5) Expressing social, personal comments
(6) Replying: giving a correct reply, giving an incorrect reply, giving an unexpected reply, and no response.

The above-mentioned functional analyses was to some extent reflected in the data analysis of the present study. This classification was employed as a means of prior understanding of data collected in the classroom.

(B) ANALYSES OF CONVERSATIONAL INTERACTIONS

The second analysis was concerned with conversational interactions in the SL classroom. The focus was on the interaction of these beginning SL learners with the turn-taking systems. The interactions between the SL learners' speech acts or communicative intention and the turn-getting systems were investigated and analyzed in relation to the model suggested by Sacks et al.(1974). At the same time, Levinson's(1983, p. 298) simplified illustration of turn-taking rules which are operating on the turn-units suggested by Sack et al.(1978) was:

> "where C is current speaker, N is next speaker, TRP(transition relevant place) is the recognizable end of a turn-constructional unit:
> Rule 1 - applies initially at the first TRP of any turn
> (a) If C selects N in current turn, then C must stop speaking, and N must speak next, transition occurring at the first TRP after N-selection
> (b) If C does not select N, then any (other) party may self-select, first speaker gaining rights to the next turn
> (c) If C has not selected N, and no other party self-selects under option
> (b), then C may (but need not) continue (i.e. claim rights to a further turn-constructional unit)
> Rule 2 - applies at all subsequent TRPs

> When Rule 1(c) has been applied by C, then at the next TRP Rules 1(a)-(c) apply, and recursively at the next TRP, until speaker change is effected.

It is assumed that the turn-taking rules manifest a structural aspect of conversation at large. These rules were used as criteria to understand the differences between classroom conversational organization and that of outside the classroom, and adjacency pairs.

(C) ANALYSES OF MORPHOSYNTACTIC DEVELOPMENT

The third part of the data analysis concerned some developmental aspects of the morphosyntactic acquisition of the target language. The basic concept of this analysis started from the developmental stages of language acquisition according to stages. Linguistic components uttered by SL learners were primarily categorized into three stages. The understanding and use of lexical items, case markers, predicate verbs, and word order could be interpreted in terms of erroneous production and misunderstanding of the previous utterances. This analysis dealt with the relationship between the turn-getting strategies and the use of language in the instructional setting of the classroom. At the same time, the interview data were also included in this analysis. Code-switching in the use of the target language in KSL classrooms and in their interviewing setting was also analyzed in relation to functional aspects of language.

Classroom conversation refers to quasi-communication activities, in a rigid sense. During the classroom interaction and during the interview, negation was used to express or delay communicative intentions. The developmental aspects in the acquisition of negation was dealt with in terms of SL learners' attitude toward information and the mapping strategies used by SL learners. Communicative alternatives included pragmatic alternatives, the alternative expression of a single proposition, and the complex expressions in the discourse. Some strategies for negation, denial, and refusal were related to the emergence of communicative alternatives.

(D) ANALYSES OF PHONOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

Fourthly, the development of phonological understanding and production, prosodic contour, and some strategies for learning new phonological operations were analyzed. The main concern of the analysis was about the deviant production and comprehension of segmental and suprasegmental components of the target language phonology. This analysis dealt with the interaction of SL learners with written materials, speaking practices and to turn-getting systems in the classroom. This analysis concerned SL learners' simplified forms of phonological elements in relation to merger strategies, and their diversified or irregular production of phonological segments in relation to split strategies(Pae, 1985), on the basis of word-utterance according to their steps.

Diversification aspects were analyzed on the basis of phonemic units, and simplification aspects were classified on the basis of fronting, stopping, fortis, weakening, addition, and deletion.

Another aspect of phonological development was related to the modification of prosodic contour of the sentential-level utterance. SL learners' deviant falling or rising intonation, and their exaggerated, unnatural stress were included in this analysis.

This analysis was also concerned with SL learners' eliciting strategies in the classroom situation or in the instructional lesson setting. This analysis focused on the utilization of linguistic context in the response to teachers' questions. Therefore, this analysis was related to the understanding of discourse-level structures.

(E) ANALYSES OF DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL DEIXIS

Finally, the data collected from KSL students and classrooms were analyzed in terms of cultural understanding, the relations between communicators social status, and the use of language. There are a variety of speech level and formalities in the Korean language. Some scholars subdivide them into four levels, and others into six levels. This study tried to synthesize these views, as shown in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1. Unitary speech level in Korean

LEVEL	MODEL EXAMPLES (Verb) *ha-ta*'
(1) Extreme Respect	ha-pnita ha-sipsio
(2) Common Respect	ha-o
(3) General Respect	ha-eyo
(4) Common Disrespect (Intimate)	ha-ne ha-ke
(5) Extreme Disrespect	ha-nta ha-era
(6) General Disrespect	ha-e
(7) Semi-(dis)Respect (pan-mal)	ha-(z)i

Note. 'corresponds to the verb 'do' in English.

Table 4-1 shows six gradations of unitary speech level in Korean. The seventh grade indicates that this level can be used according to a speaker's intention and communicators' intimacy. In addition, the differences between a speaker's intention and a hearer's interpretation may exist from context to context, and from person to person. Even though honorifics show a speaker's intention to respect the speaker, addressee, and the referent, they are not always what the others expect. Surface structures which are independent of context cannot reveal the real intentions of a speaker. There is a difference between a speaker's intention or purpose and superficial utterances. It is necessary and important to allow for formality if communicators are to understand each other. Table 4-2 suggests dual speech level systems in Korean.

Table 4-2. Dual speech level and formality in Korean

1st SYSTEM (FORMAL)	2nd SYSTEM (INFORMAL)
(1) Extreme Respect	(3) General Respect
(2) Common Respect	
(4) Common Disrespect	(6) General Disrespect
(5) Extreme Disrespect	
(7) Semi-Respect	Semi-disrespect
(8) Unspecified (Audience) Respect	ha-syeoyo ha-seyo

Table 4-2 shows that in the Korean language each binary subsystem can be divided into two categories. Extreme and common expressions are characteristic of formal situations, whereas the informal situation includes general expressions in each binary subsystem. An audience, irrespective of age, may be addressed in unspecified honorific terms on formal and informal occasions. This table indicates that the unitary systems of classification vertically distributes four levels of speech per se. Honorifics involve the way to respect an addressee or a referent directly, and the way to express a speaker's modesty.

Therefore, formalities should be reflected in honorifics at the same time. Nevertheless, in the written discourse mode of the Korean language, one level can be added - unspecified audience disrespect expressions. Since such expressions can be seen in proclamations, warnings, regulations, and commercial advertisements, as a kind of abbreviation, this level was excluded from this analysis.

F. PILOT STUDY

The researcher planned a pilot study for four months from December of 1984 until April of 1985, so as to test the possibilities in understanding SL learners' language development and their strategies. The sample consisted of eight children whose ages were between three and ten years. All of them were learning Korean as a second language in Edmonton. One did not go to school, but the other seven children were learning Korean in the Korean Language School. They were observed and studied quasi-longitudinally. Data was collected in natural settings. The speech samples were gathered in the classroom, at recess, during games, or natural conversations with peers, parents, and the researcher(Pae 1985).

The objectives of the pilot study were:

1. To increase understanding of the cultural awareness according to the language development either in the classroom or outside the class.

2. To investigate developmental aspects of language acquisition by means of cross-linguistic analysis.

3. To improve data collection techniques and data description skills.

4. To increase understanding of SL learners' lives in and outside the classroom.

The procedures of the pilot study involved the researcher, as a participant observer, who took part in the classroom lessons. The researcher observed two hours every other week. Data were tape recorded from the children's spontaneous speech. Data were transcribed and then cross-linguistically analysed.

The findings were first that familiarity with the children developed within two weeks. Secondly, children who were learning a SL tended to use and apply individual strategies in phonological perception and production. In the analysis of spontaneous speech, it was found that English-speaking children learning KSL were acquiring phonological components in an order similar to that of the native Korean children learning Korean. Thirdly, the performance of language, and the acquisition and developmental aspects of phonology seemed to be manifestations of children's strategies. Fourthly, children tended to use 'split' strategies at the beginning stage of learning the language, whereas the 'merger' strategies increased with age. Merger strategies made a contribution to the acquisition of common properties between the target language and the native language, and to the generalization of rules. Split strategies implied individual and developmental differences in SL acquisition process. Fifthly, as children were learning phonological components, they were gradually acquiring the cultural properties.

NOTE

1. Bruner(1983, p. 128) distinguishes text from context, saying: "text is what is in words; context is the rest of what affects the interpretation of the words - the 'rest' including words and nonwords."

2. Garfinkel(1975, p. 18) defines an ethnomethodological study as "an organizational study of a member's knowledge of his ordinary affairs, of his own organized enterprises, where that knowledge is treated by us as part of the same setting that it also makes orderable."

3. Long(1983a) has pointed up three differences between them which may be briefly described as follows.

First, ethnomethodology employs 'retrievable' data, using film or videotape for both data gathering and data display when reporting findings. Second, data are treated 'exhaustively', so that all the data, not just the most frequently occurring patterns therein, are analyzed and interpreted both sequentially and hierarchically. Third, ethnomethodology is directed to 'interactional analysis,' which seeks to discover participants' uses of words to structure the organization of social events.

4. Some characteristics of this method are as follows:

(a) Page layout: If nonverbal information should be prominent, nonverbal behavior should be reported to the left of a participant's verbal behavior. The child's speech column is placed to the left of the adult's speech column.

(b) The situation is described in prose style (Schiefflin 1979).

(c) The orthographic representation of utterances should be transcribed modified forms, adopted by Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson(1974), such items as *gonna*, *wanna*, *whazat*, *yah see?*, *lemme see it*, and the like.

The conventions for the transcription of verbal and nonverbal materials will be used in a condensed style. The transcript method used by Ochs and Schiefflin(1979) will be shown in Appendix A.

Chapter IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT AND SLA

The main research concern of this study as outlined in Chapter I was to address the question of how beginning SL learners' language development could be attributed to the acquisition of communicative competence via pragmatic understanding. This chapter deals with beginning SL learners' interactional aspects with environmental factors in the acquisition of the target language. The understanding of what is involved in the process of second language acquisition should include that of SLA and learning in the classroom, because "the classroom contains enough elements of reality" (Seliger & Long, 1983, p. viii). This chapter involves the nature and characteristics of SL class lessons, the interactional aspects between beginning SL learners and speech events, and the influence of classroom conversation organization on the speech act from a macroview. The first section describes the results of data analysis, and the second section interprets and discusses the findings of data anlaysis. In the examples hereinafter, T indicates SL teacher, and B, C, and P are referred to as sample children who are learning ESL. S1, S2, S3, Sa, Sb, Sc... are sample children who are learning KSL.

A. FINDINGS

Since speech acts are subject to certain constraints such as "context perception and verbal pertinency"(Titone, 1983, p. 280)', it is possible and necessary to understand the nature and functions of SL classroom discourse in order to understand the SLA process in relation to communicative competence. This study was concerned with functions of classroom discourse and with some characteristics of classroom conversation for SLA and for developing communicative competence, not with the structure of class lessons itself.

Through the data analysis, an integrated understanding of developmental aspects of SLA was obtained in terms of the interrelations among three properties: the interaction between beginning SL learners and social context, the interaction between beginning SL learners and language, and the interaction betw communicators. This section will present the findings and results of the data analysis. The first part will provide a macroview of the structure of the SL classroom discourse. The subsequent parts will report on the sensitivity of SL beginners to context or environmental factors, and on the classroom turn-taking systems for speech acts.

1. THE FUNCTIONS OF SL CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

ESL and KSL classrooms in this study showed different situational constraints. ESL students usually came to the ESL teacher's office which was used as an ESL classroom, during/after regular school lessons. They shared a large table during class lessons. There was no blackboard and some activities were performed in the office, others in the library outside the office. On the contrary, KSL students came once a week to a class in a public school. There were two blackboards and some activities were carried out in a classroom. Despite the situational differences, the SL learning settings of both classrooms were characterized by four transitional speech events: *openings*, *reviews*, *lessons*, and *closings*. The transition from one event to another event was performed smoothly by the teachers.

(A) OPENINGS AS SPEECH EVENTS

The speech acts during opening speech events included greetings to the teachers' statements about weather, attendance checks, requests for information about students' feelings, and requests for the children to get their textbooks and instructional materials ready. The main purpose of the discourse during the opening speech event was to get the students' attention and to stop their informal conversations and chatterings among themselves; the speech encouraged the group to begin the systematic, organized SL discourse. Table 5 shows some topics of the speech acts representative of the opening speech events from both the ESL and the KSL classes.

Table 5. Topic elements of the opening speech event

ESL CLASS	KSL CLASS
Personal greetings	Personal greetings
	Class/Group greetings to teachers
Statements or asking about weather	Statements or asking about weather
Asking of student's feelings	Asking of students' feelings
Checking participants' absence	Checking participants' absence
	Asking about traffic or transportation condition
Waiting for students who are late	Waiting for students who are late (optional)
Preparation of texts or learning materials	Preparation of texts or learning materials which students have brought

The ESL classroom observed was somewhat different from the KSL classroom observed in terms of culture and social structure. For example, this conversation

Example 1: (*Tape #1, ESL*)
1 T: *Hi, B.*
2 B: *Hi, V.*
3 T: How are you?/
4 P: *I'm fine/* ((WH))
5 T: *Good/*
6 T: *How are you, B?/*
7 B: *Thank/=thank you, fine/ Thank you/*
8 T: *And C, how are you?/*
9 C: *Fine, thank you/*

showed that the greetings served to open conversations between teachers and students in the ESL class whereas Example 2 below shows that KSL classroom greetings were considered as the termination of informal activities and the beginning of classroom discourse.

Example 2: *(Tape #31, KSL)*
1 T:->Ss *ta(:) katchi ileo seo-seyo/*
ALL STAND UP.
[Students are still making a noise, and chattering]
2 *za(:), ileo seo?/*
COME ON, STAND UP.
3 ->Ss
za(:), kuleon-keo ani-yeyo/
COME ON! DON'T BEHAVE SO.
4 ->New students *zaa, yeoki anzeo/*
PLEASE, SIT DOWN HERE.
5 -> Ss *zaa, ileo seo/*
NOW, STAND UP.
6 S3: *ANNYEONG, ANNYEONG/*(Singing)
7 T:->S3 *zaa/ xxx, neka hanpeon insa hae ( )/*
COME ON, xxx. YOU START GREETINGS, FIRST...

As shown in the examples 1 and 2, the opening speech event manifested interpersonal and interactional functions between teachers and students, whether the structure was formal or informal. As shown on line (5) of Example 1, and on the lines (1) and (3) of Example 2, sometimes the instructional function is included in the opening speech event. Such an instructional function was distinctive in SL classroom discourse.

As shown on line (4) of Example 2, just before the classes began, or during the opening events, seat placements were arranged. In both ESL and KSL classes, seat arrangements usually occurred before the classes. As shown on lines (2) and (5) in Example 2, the opening discourse of the KSL classroom was constituted by the transition from personal conversations between teacher and students, and among students to the formal discourse setting. This transition could be identified by the teacher's shift of register, tone of voice, and honorific expressions toward the students. In Example 2, the teacher used an audience honorific expressions -seyo at the end of the utterance on line (1), which indicated the beginning of formal class lessons. Her tone was changed on the lines of (2) and (5). *pan-mal* (non-honorifics) ileoseo (*stand up* in English) indicated a directive and attention-getting move.

Example 3: *(Tape #4, ESL)*

1 T: *B, can you close the door, please? Thank you. Okay. Uhm, would you like to all sit on that side?* (1min) *How are you?*
3 C: *I am (fine).*
4 T: *Are you happy or sad today?*
5 C: *I am happy.*

Example 3 provided illustrations of the topics in the opening speech event of SL classrooms. The teacher requested C to close the door, and then she attempted to arrange seats as shown on line (2). Asking personal feelings, just as on line (4), sometimes followed greetings. In the ESL classes, however, students' seats were sometimes rearranged during the classes. Seat placement was frequently a preparation for the subsequent turn-taking procedures which would go on in the lessons. For the purpose of classroom management, seat placements were rearranged according to the teachers' directions.

Example 4:
(a) *Is it hot, warm or cold outside?*
(from Tape #4, ESL)
(b) *choowoonte yeoleopoon osinula sooko haess-eoyo.*
'Thank you for coming in such cold weather'
(Tape #34, KSL)
(c) *Can you get your new book, B? Bring all your books.*
(from Tape #4, ESL)
(d) *nooka azik an wass-zi?* 'Who is absent?'
(Tape #35, KSL)

Example 4a was asking about weather, and Example 4b statement about weather in opening discourses. Example 4c showed preparation of learning materials, and Example 4d checking students' absence frequently observed in the opening discourse.

(B) REVIEWS AS SPEECH EVENTS

During the review speech event, the teachers engaged in strategies to find out what and how much knowledge their students had acquired and retained. Questions were asked or games were played to assess their students' abilities in terms of written and/or spoken discourse. While the decision for the discourse mode depended upon the individual teacher, spoken discourse or conversation was usually used in this event, as in Example 5.

Example 5: *(Tape #1, ESL)*
1 T: *And C, how are you?/*
2 C: *Fine, thank you/*
3 T: *Okay/ do you remember what is this called?/*
4 P: *um/ BINGo/*
5 T: *RIGHT!/ bingo, okay/ bingo with animal names/ okay/*

On line (3) of Example 5, '*okay*' was used as a move for the shift from an opening speech events to a review. While a variety of activities were performed, speech acts were the main flow of this review event. During review events, teachers tended to apply the turn-taking rules rapidly. Teacher talk controlled the turn-nominations and the direction functions in order to enhance the SL beginners' understanding of classroom discourse structure and conversational rules. Chorus reading was used as an economical, efficient way to maximize turn-taking and as a corrective device for the errors made by learners. Chorus reading also presented a language-learning context.

Another aspect during review events was that repetitive tasks were assigned to the SL beginners. The repetitive substitution exerted a pseudo-communicative function, as shown in Example 6 below.

Example 6: *(Tape #32, KSL)*
1 T: *za(:) onul yeoki xxx(S1) bootheo*
zaki-lul hanpeon sokae-hae pose-yo/
NOW, LET'S INTRODUCE YOURSELF TO
OTHERS, PLEASE. START FROM xxx.
2 S1: *zeo-nun xxx-ipnita/*
I AM xxx.
3 T: *zeo-nun xxx(S1)-ipnita/ kutaum,*
xxx(Sa)/
I AM xxx(S1). NEXT, xxx(Sa).
4 Sa: *zeo-nun xxx-ipnita/*
I AM xxx.
5 T: *zeo-nun xxx-ipnita/ kutaum/*
I AM xxx(Sa). NEXT.
6 S2: *zeo-nun xxx-ipnita/*
I AM xxx.

SL beginners already knew each other by name, yet each turn-holder was to introduce themselves to the other students in the classroom. This practice indicated that old information was arbitrarily modified into new information by the teacher. In this situation, teachers usually requested students to modify a specific context into another, and frequently initiated a conversation and elicited a response from a pupil and then evaluated the response. On the other hand, the current turn-holder was not expected to nominate the next turn-getter, and the teacher frequently provided feedback as shown on lines (3) and (5).

(C) LESSONS AS SPEECH EVENTS

The temporal and contextual transition from review to lesson or from lesson to review was usually decided by teachers. Nevertheless, the transition of topic and its development went on smoothly. Through conversation and written texts, the topic was changed and shifted to the next speech event. The anticipation and expectation of teachers toward students' information and knowledge or linguistic capabilities were frequently assessed by the spoken discourse. The inference and expectation of mutual knowledge or shared experience, which were necessary for a cooperative conversation, were sometimes inaccurate and were often off the topic. It was also found that the gap between turns and the frequent overlap between teachers and students or among students sometimes occurred in lesson speech events.

During the lesson discourse, the SL students were taught new information which was introduced through such activities and devices as:

1. Interpretation or explanations by teachers
2. Showing pictures
3. Presenting and demonstrating real objects
4. Showing mock-up or models of objects
5. Making models
6. Playing a game or games
7. Performing impromptu dramas or songs
8. Making similar shapes or forms
9. Finding items in the classroom which was related to the content or topic
10. Chorus reading after teachers
11. One or two students' model reading and repairing
12. Writing the letters of the target language

The choice of activity or device depended upon the topics, tasks, or the teacher's intentions in the specific plan and context. For instance, the ESL teacher had planned her instructional program for ESL students to include topics such as 'introduction', 'alphabet', 'colors', 'cardinal numbers', 'ordinal numbers', 'geometric shapes', 'labeling/nouns', 'body', 'family', 'clothing', 'food', 'animals', 'weather', and so forth (more detailed materials are in Appendix B). In the KSL classroom, the teacher selected lesson topics and tasks from printed materials, homework, and tests.

Question-answer type conversations in the lesson were usually performed under the presupposition that the SL learners did not know the new information which would be provided by the teacher, and that pupils would observe the turn-taking rules during the classroom conversations. In order not to violate turn-taking rules, some students attempted to get a turn or take the floor by raising their hands in advance or by making some other gesture to demonstrate their ability to provide a correct answer. Some students habitually raised their hands while their teacher was explaining or introducing new information. Raising hands and making other gestures served the function of directing others to hand over the turn to those who were doing so.

(D) CLOSINGS AS SPEECH EVENTS

The transition from lesson to evaluation or closing took place when the teachers asking questions to which they expected the students to make correct answers. This testing would include both oral and/or written items. The teachers often checked on the matching between the oral and the written language responses. Correction of mistakes was frequently done on the spot but could be delayed until the following class.

The contextual cues for the closing were signalled by the outside physical world, including the clock on the wall, the noise of other classroom students, or bell-ringing telling the end of the class period. On the other hand, regardless of the external factors, teachers controlled the closing with cues, such as homework assignments, advance notices for recess or lunch, or advance announcements of the topics which would be dealt with in the following lesson. Example 7 shows this phenomena.

Example 7: *(Tape #12, ESL>*
T: *We've finished/ It's time to go back to your class/ Will you put your books away please/ Goodbye/*
P: *Bye, Mrs. V./*
T: *Bye/*
C: *Bye/*
T: *Goodbye C/*
B: *Goodbye, Mrs. V/*
T: *Goodbye, B/*
B: *See you Monday/*
T: *See you Monday/ that's right/*

What we observe in this conversation are some social expressions, personal comments, and greetings which function to improve or develop social understanding. ESL students could individually close their discourse with the completion of the tasks assigned by their teacher, whereas the KSL students could not leave the room until they had bowed to their teacher and finished a farewell song. These closings especially showed up the cultural differences in these two SL classes.

(E) FUNCTIONS OF THE CLASSROOM AS SPEECH EVENT

As shown in the previous four sections, lessons of the two classes exerted different and similar functions as speech events. Some of the functional differences between these two classes seemed to be derived from the formality and/or differences in their physical size, such as the number of participants and the size of the classroom.

(1) DIFFERENCES

Firstly, the smaller ESL class was more informal, whereas the larger KSL class was more formal. In the ESL class the illocutionary acts were performed on the basis of interpersonal, interactional, and informative functions. The speech act was related to information about academic, or specific content, and to complex social relationships during intimate discussions and conversations. The KSL class was primarily concerned with specific information about specific subject areas and one-to-one conversations seldom took place during the class. In other words, the KSL class event did not concentrate on interpersonal, communicative, and interactional functions in the same manner as the ESL class.

Secondly, in the ESL class, the opening gave the impression of presenting interactional elements between teacher and individual student, whereas in the KSL class, the interactional element seemed to be a by-product of the regulatory and instructional contexts. The topics and tasks in lesson speech events provided a variety of contexts and revealed contextually different functions. ESL students could expect to have opportunities to take the floor, whereas KSL students could not.

(2) SIMILARITIES

Despite the differences, these two classes also displayed similar functions. Firstly, they provided a similar language-learning context, in that language was used as an instrument for communication with the SL students usually learning to give a brief answer to their teachers' questions. They also learned not to initiate conversations. That is to say, they learned a kind of passive role in classroom conversation. They seemed to acquire interpersonal functions. In this situation, SL learners were "not easily encouraged to drop well-learned conversational roles and to display the kinds of linguistic competence" (Stubbs, 1983, p. 116).

Secondly, both SL classrooms displayed pseudo-communicative functions. For example, the KSL teacher introduced topics about self-introduction, the introduction of family to others, apologizing, thanking, and so forth, but the contexts seemed artificial and unnatural. Artificial contexts, however elaborate in design, constitute expect-to-be-used contexts for the similar use of the target language. Almost all the questions asked by the teacher to elicit new information implied that the information sought was already known to the teacher. The participants in the class shared little with each other in terms of personal interests, cultural understanding, home background, social stratification, and so on. The only common interest was the need or motivation to learn the SL in that class.

Thirdly, both SL classes manifested organizationally different features from everyday settings for conversation. Outside SL classes, speech events were usually composed of two-part elicitation-response and internal organization of interactional sequences, whereas SL class speech events are basically 'three-part organizations'(Mehan, 1985). Basically means that feedback or back-channelling was often omitted in the sequences of class speech events.

2. FEATURES OF SL CLASSROOM CONVERSATION

In the SL classroom conversation, student speakers were likely to utter one word, phrase, or sentence at one time. Understanding the SLA processes of SL learners requires knowledge of the unique nature of SL classroom conversation. The data analysis revealed five features of SL classroom conversation which are different from normal conversation patterns.

One feature of SL classroom conversation structure was the once-and-away turn system. While everyday conversation was usually characterized in its recursiveness, the SL classroom conversation showed irregular recurrence patterns, and there was no guarantee of the recurrence as in everyday conversation. Example 8 shows a part of a turn sequence of the KSL classroom.

Example 8: *(Tape #35, KSL)*

T -> S2 -> T -> S2 -> T -> Ss(six times) -> T -> S2 ->
T -> Ss(three times) -> T -> S2 -> T -> Sj -> T -> Sc -> T
-> S2 -> T -> S2 -> T -> Sm -> T -> Sa (S3) -> T -> Sb -> T
-> Sc -> T -> Sd -> T -> S2 -> T -> S2 -> T -> Sf -> T -> Se
-> T -> Sc -> T -> Sc -> T -> Sc -> T -> Sb -> T -> Sa -> T
-> Sm--> T -> Ss[writing practice and testing] -> T -> S3 ->
T -> Ss(three times) -> T -> Sn -> T -> S3 -> T -> Sg -> T
-> S1 -> T -> Sb -> T -> Sy -> T -> S3 -> T -> S3 -> T -> Ss
-> T -> Ss -> T -> Sy -> T -> Sn ....

Note. (1) T: teacher; (2) S1, S2, S3: study subjects
(3) Sa, Sb, ...: other student; (4) Ss: students

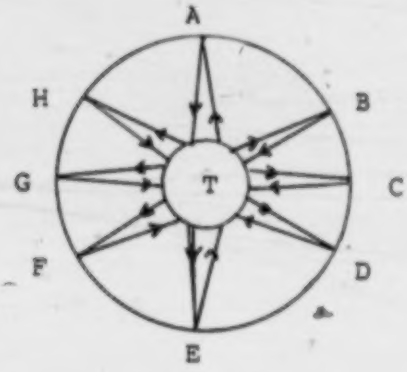
The number of turn-holders during the 100 turns of this event was only one-third of the classroom members, and the next speaker was selected by the teacher. The turn-allocation controlled by teachers did not always allow for the student's communicative intention. In addition, conversational sequences were not maintained by the current speaker. The current turn holder could not predict and expect when to take her or his next turn. If SL beginners stuck to a passive attitude toward the turn-taking sequences, they would have to wait for the next turn allocation or for permission from the teacher. However, if the SL learners were willing and eager to take a turn, overlapping, turn-occupation, and other violations of turn-taking rules occasionally took place. In such instances the speaker's utterances were made with a communicative intention and an informative function, and with a heuristic, and interactional function, and therefore satisfied the cooperative principles of speech acts.

The second feature of the SL classroom conversation was that the conversation is usually performed on the basis of the unequal relationship of power among participants (teachers and students). This feature limited the personal function, the understanding of social structure, and the variety of language use. Perception of social inequality was prior to linguistic manipulation and mapping ability. Turn allocation techniques were used by the teacher, not by the students. Teacher-centered conversational structure can be viewed as the other side of the limitation of student participation of conversation in a class time. The children usually took the power of the teacher for granted. The inequality was accepted due to differences in academic knowledge, information, linguistic manipulation capability, age, and social status. The children knew that however new information might be, it was not new information to the teacher. They were aware of the unequal access and the different attitudes toward the new information.

The third feature of the SL classroom conversation was a centripetal structure. The natural daily conversation structure shows the linear flow of conversational sequences as

A -> B -> A -> B -> A -> B ...

However, the SL classroom conversation structure was different from that of everyday conversation. SL classroom discourses gave turn initiation priority to the teacher, and therefore classroom discourse structure is represented by a centripetal model as Figure 2 rather than a linear model.



Note. (1) T: teacher; (2) A, B, ..: students

Figure 2. A centripetal model of conversation

Figure 2 illustrates that the teacher allocates student A a turn to talk, and A replies. After A's response, the next turn will be given to the teacher again. Then the next speaker is not necessarily B, but C, D or other students. The teacher is the center of classroom conversations. The choice of the next speaker is usually expected to be the responsibility of the teacher. Since the turn is returned to the teacher, the flow can be considered centripetal.

The fourth feature of the SL classroom conversation was the inequality of turn distributions, which seemed to be according to the students' attitudes toward the information, and the number of participants. The turn distribution during the interview speech events was more like everyday conversation because it was directly affected by the SL learners' communicative intention, cooperativeness, and attitude toward the information. Table 6-1 and 6-2 show how frequently the children in the ESL and the KSL classroom took turns during one class hour across six different observations.

Table 6-1. Turn-taking frequency of ESL students

	Dec 6	Dec 13	Jan 8	Jan 15	Feb 26	Mar 3
B	67	65	58	63	149	92
C	68	67	61	58	134	59
P	81	29	43	77	108	109
All	6	5	16	18	48	103
T	203	166	161	198	366	363

Note. B, C, P : sample children; All: all students; T: teacher

Table 6-2. Turn-taking frequency of KSL students

	Nov 1	Nov 22	Dec 6	Jan 10	Jan 24	Jan 31
S1	3	15	9	8	5	5
S2	8	11	14	15	14	8
S3	14	6	11	20	8	14
Other	15	19	39	10	4	5
All	14	3	7	6	4	2
T	46	54	46	55	33	38

Note. S1, S2, S3 : sample children; Other: other students; All: all students; T: teacher

The difference in the number of turns taken between the two classes was due to the different number of participants in each class. The differences in the number of turns taken in the same class reflect individual subject's attitudes toward the SL class, toward information and the transitivity of the turn-taking system. Since SL classroom conversations had an instructional function, turn-taking was sometimes imposed on and distributed to all the participants by chorus reading, or according to rows and lines, or group by group, or by all the students in the classroom.

The fifth feature of the SL classroom conversation in the large group class was that the turn-taking was usually competitive. However carefully and well-designed the plan for turn-taking distribution might have been, an unequal distribution occurred during the lesson. Since the students had different cultural backgrounds, motivations, and personalities, their presuppositions, intentions, and linguistic capabilities varied and differed from person to person. Competitiveness for turn-taking was more obvious when there were fewer opportunities to get the floor. Sometimes the students struggled to get the floor, whether or not they had the correct answer or the correct information.

3. PASSIVE VS. ACTIVE TURN-GETTING

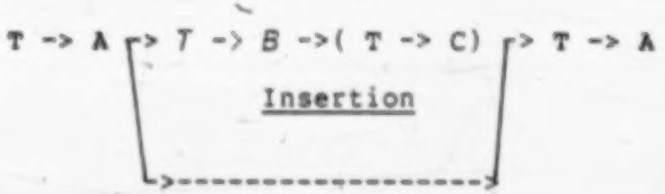
Teachers usually identified the turn initiative and controlled the turn order, and therefore students normally took their turns according to the teacher's permission or allocation and/or pre-designed turn order. Students were able to get the floor passively or actively as shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Passive and active turn-taking

PASSIVE	ACTIVE
1. Allocation	1. Post-permitted occupation
a) Pre-designed order	2. Unaccepted occupation
b) Change or modification of the turn order	
2. Turn insertion	3. Steal
3. Permission	4. Tentative occupation
a) Implicitly pre-permitted	
b) Explicitly pre-permitted	

Table 7 indicates that while passive turn-taking included the teacher's turn allocation, turn-insertion, and turn permission, active turn-taking included post-permitted, unaccepted turn-occupation, stealing, and tentative occupation.

Turns were passively allocated by the teacher's pre-designed turn order, and/or SL students' turn order was sometimes changed or modified. Turn orders of on-going conversations were sometimes changed by insertion. Turn insertion can be illustrated as:



In the on-going T-A conversation, the T-B (and T-C) turns were inserted for the purpose of smooth flow of conversation between T and A. Therefore, the tentatively interrupted turn of A was not a part of once-and-away turn structure, but actually a means of topic continuation. Example 9 shows up their practice in real discourse.

Example 9: *(Tape #43, KSL)*

1 Sb: *na(::)*
I...
[Five students raise their hands]
2 T: *zom kitallyeo/*(to five students)
WAIT FOR A MOMENT.
3 *mweo-ya?/*
WHAT?
4 Sb: *i ae-nun/*
THIS CHILD ...
5 T: *i ae-nun?/*
THIS CHILD...?
6 Sb: [silence]
7 T: *i-ae NUN* (1) *eolini-yeyo?/ mweo-yeyo?/ neo-hako musun kwankye-ka itnunya-ko muleoss-zi?/*
(2)IS THIS A CHILD? OR WHAT? DID I ASK WHAT THE RELATION OF THIS CHILD IS TO YOU?
9 *xxx(Sc)-ika hae-pwa/*
xxx, ANSWER THE QUESTION.
10 Sc: [silence. turning around]
11 T: ->Sd xxx/
12 Sd: (smiling) *i-ae nun zeo(.)-ui tongsaeng i-yeoyo/*
THIS CHILD IS MY YOUNGER BROTHER.
13 T: *i ai-nun zeo-ui tongsaeng i-yeoyo/*
THIS CHILD IS MY YONGER BROTHER.
14 xxx(Sc), *tasi hae-pwa/*
TRY IT, AGAIN.
15 Sc: (2)*na-nun/*
I...
16 T: *ani, i ae-e taehaeseo yaeki hanun-de we NA-ya/*
NO, WHY DO YOU USE "I" WHEN YOU TALK ABOUT THIS CHILD?
yae-nun?/ (2) xxx(Sd)-*ika tasi hae-poa/*
LOOK! xxx, SAY AGAIN.
19 Sd: *i ae-neun zeo-ui tongsaeng i-eoyo/*
THIS CHILD IS MY YONGER BROTHER.
20 T: *tasi hae-poa/* xxx(Sc)-*i hae-pwa/*
TRY AGAIN. xxx, TRY TO SAY IT.
21 Sc: [silence]
22 T: ->Sb xxx, *hae-poa/*
xxx, TRY TO SAY IT.
23 Sb: *zeo(:)-nun EO.../*
I....

We see there that the teacher nominated Sb in order to elicit a sentence level utterance, but did not get the intended information from Sb. The teacher then employed turn insertion strategies to elicit a correct answer from Sb. First, the teacher nominated Sc on line (9), who did not make a correct answer. Another turn insertion occurred when the teacher nominated Sd on line (11), who made an appropriate answer. Since the teacher wanted to correct Sc first, the teacher returned to their conversation on lines (14), (15), (20) and (21). Without solving the problem with Sc, the teacher returned to her conversation with Sb on line (22), who still did not give a satisfactory reply. The teacher attempted a double turn insertion technique and nominated Sc and Sd. After the conversation with Sd, she returned to her original conversation with Sc and Sb.

On other occasions, a 'general solicit'(Allwright, 1980)[3] was addressed to the whole class. A general solicit includes implicit or explicit turn permission. When students anticipated a general solicit, they usually raised their hands and exhibited other gestures verbally or nonverbally. Since a teacher could take turns when and where she or he desired and a passive turn-getting took place whether or not the following turn-holder had a communicative intention, a long gap between turns was frequently observed during the SL classroom conversations. It seemed that SL teachers designed the turn order before class or the planned discourse in order to avoid wasting time; they tried to promote a smooth flow of turn sequences by selecting children in a certain seat number, row, or by using some other priority. The modification of the current turn order occurred where and when the teacher wanted to reduce the monotonous process of the conversation, and to invoke and recapture the students' attention.

In these SL classrooms, the teachers did not always control the turn initiative. Students could intentionally or unintentionally happen to have the turn initiation move according to the topic, context, or situation. Such acts of turn initiation by students constituted an active turn-getting. For example, when the teacher gave a general direction so as to elicit some information from the students before the selection of the next speaker, one or more students would have a chance to take the turn, but permission to speak still came from the teacher. We see that in Example 10.

Example 10: *(Tape #44, KSL)*
1 T: *'kk' tuleo kanunkeo-mweoka iss-na,*
takatchi hanpeon saengkak haepopsita.
(General solicit)
LET'S THINK ABOUT A LETTER WITH 'KK' SOUND.
3 S1: *kkum.* (Occupation)
GUM
4 T: *kkum-issjo.* (post-permission)
IT IS 'GUM.'

On line (3), child S1 occupied a turn before the teacher's allocation. After child S1's response, the teacher implicitly accepted his turn and added a feedback. However, teachers did not always accept the students' talk at turns before turn allocation, as shown in Example 11.

Example 11: *(Tape #32, KSL)*

1 T: *so(:)k-uro ilkeo-yo/* (General Solicit)
DO READING SILENTLY.
[Showing a picture to students.]
2 S3: *kang-azi/* (Occupation)
PUPPY
3 Ss: *kang-azi/* [following S3's answer, and laughing]
4 T: ->S3 *xxx, cham zaal hante, xxx(S3) honza*
PRIVATE LESSON *hanun-ke ani-zi?/*

xxx, YOU ARE DOING VERY WELL, BUT xxx
YOU AREN'T RECEIVING A PRIVATE LESSON,
ARE YOU?
5 ->Ss *zaa, ike mweo yeyo?/* (General Solicit)
NOW, WHAT IS THIS?
6 Ss: *kang-azi/*
PUPPY

Example 11 shows that child S3 spoke out or took a turn priot to the turn nomination and was warned not to violate turn-taking rules by the teacher. These conditions were found many times in both the KSL and the ESL class lessons. Observation suggested that repeated warnings by the teacher against the violation of turn-taking rules weakened the communicative intention in the lesson. For instance, S3 was warned not to violate the turn-taking rules two or three times in the class and it was observed that for two weeks he did not take an active part in classroom conversations

Stealing would take place before, in the midst of, or after a current speaker's talk. That is to say, unsolicited responses to a teacher's utterance, self-correction or self-practice in the lesson event, and imitation of teacher's linguistic items were considered turn stealing if the student's utterances did not affect the current turn holder's speech acts. Turn stealing was especially meaningful when it involved self-practice, self-correction, or the expression of SL learners' thought and feeling.

Example 12: *(Tape #2, ESL)*

1 T: *Let's see( )/*
2 B: *Cow/*
3 C: *Cow/X/ C/X/X/( )* (Stealing)
4 B: *Cow/*
5 T: *Good/*
6 B & C: *Cow/* (C's Steal)
7 T: *Good/*
8 C & B: *Cow/ Lion/* (B's Steal)
9 T: *Good/*
10 C & B: *Duck/* (B's Steal)

On line (3) of Example 12, even though child C stole a turn, his utterance did not affect the reply by B, but engaged in self-practice. The teacher gave a feedback on line (5), and then children B and C repeated the word 'cow' without any permission from the teacher. On the lines (8) and (10), the teacher permitted the turn stealing by B, even if the turn was allocated to C. However, Example 13 shows different conditions of stealing.

Example 13: *(Tape #5, ESL)*
1 B: *I have eight car(ds)/*
2 T: *Eight/ C, how many cards have you?/*
3 C: *I have a eleven cards/*
4 T: *Eleven/ And C is eleven years old too/ okay/*
5 B: *Three/* [pointing to C] (Occupation)
6 T: *Three/X/?* (Permission)
7 B: *Three/* [pointing to C's cards]
8 T: *Alright/ you say he has three more/=three more/ You have eight, he has eleven/ He has three more than you/ You say C has three more cards/*
12 B: *C three more cards/*

After child C's reply, there was a gap between turns. Child B expressed his thought 'three' on line (5). The teacher accepted his stealing, and employed confirmation checks. Child B repeated his thought on l (7). Then, the teacher recognized B's intention, and presented a grammatically correct utterance.

Another turn-taking characteristic of the SL classroom was tentative turn-occupation. For example, if a student raised her or his hand or spoke, the act might give the student the floor, even though the request was unrelated to the topic. Such as:

Example 14:

1 T: *zinan sikan-e ikeo paewoss-jo?*
DID YOU LEARN THIS DURING THE LAST LESSON?
2 S1: *Can I go to the washroom?* (from Tape # 42, KSL)
3 Sn: *Can I have the paper?* (from Tape #48, KSL)
4 Sh: *Can I borrow an eraser from my friend?*
(from Tape #48, KSL)

On the line (2) of Example 14, child S1 asked the teacher to permit him to go to the washroom, which was not related to class lesson topics. On lines (3) and (4), students uttered a request to get permission from the teacher. This speech act did not significantly affect the turn of the current speaker or the classroom discourse flow.

4. TURN TRANSFER

In daily conversation, a turn can be given to the next speaker by means of conversational moves that signal the closing of the talk, for example, by syntactic structure, or prosodic contour, or nonverbal signals. One of the differences between SL classroom conversation and daily conversations is that in the classroom the turn was usually transferred rather than given to the next speaker. Turn transfer includes turn-giving and turn-yielding.

Turn-giving means that turns can be given to the next speaker intentionally and actively, while turn-yielding implies that turns can be moved to the next speaker unintentionally and passively. Characteristics of these listed for turn-giving and turn-yielding in Table 8.

Table 8. Turn-giving and turn-yielding

TURN-GIVING	TURN-YIELDING
1. Silence	1. Nomination of the next speaker by the teacher nonverbally
2. Avoidance	2. Teacher's interruption by a call-back solicit
3. Fade out and/or give way to an interruption	3. Turn-occupation by other student(s)
4. External factors	4. Turn steal
	5. Turn insertion

Lack of information, nature of the topic, the task of classroom discourse and its flow, and lack of linguistic mapping ability could induce silence and avoidance. At the beginning stages, ESL and KSL beginners frequently used silence strategies. After the silence period, ESL beginners sometimes used the word 'no' or the sentence 'I don't know.' Such an avoidance was often caused by the current speaker's uncooperative attitude toward the information, the topic, or the other participants. Fade-out manifested by prosodic contour signalled the closing of current talk and the intention to give turn to the next speaker.

Example 15: *(Tape #2, ESL)*
1 T: *Okay, C said it. First, P?*
2 P: [silent] (2min)
3 B & C: *but/* (Steal)
4 T: *butter...* (Turn-giving)
5 B: *cake.*
6 T: *butterfly.*

On line (2), child P gave her turn to others by using a long silence. Child B and Child C tried only to fail. Then, while the teacher provided only a linguistic cue, her fade-out tone implied the teacher's turn-giving to students and a general solicit. The time limitations of classroom conversation and carelessness on the part of the current speaker were included as external factors affecting turn-giving.

The shift of turn order was requested and performed by the teacher's verbal or nonverbal nomination of the next speaker. Misunderstanding of the information, discrepancy between teacher's and students' hypotheses, and differences in linguistic capacity for competence and performance seemed to cause incorrect responses to the given question and turn-yield. When the teacher intended to make an indirect correction of the turn holder's reply in pedagogical and/or procudural processes, turn-insertion was used to induce the correct and appropriate response. The current speaker's turn holding right was not lost, but only tentatively yielded to another speaker.

The most frequent occurrence during classroom conversations was that two students would happen to occupy turns to the unsolicited response, and the teacher would disregard the turn occupation of the student who made the incorrect and unexpected response. When the next turn was occupied as an interruption act, the teacher's disregard of the turn-occupation implied the turn-yield of the occupier. In addition, the shift of topic, the introduction of new information, and the change of discourse mode were also some aspects of interruption and turn-yield of the current turn. These aspects excluded any feedback or back-shadowing of the teacher to the current speaker's response.

B. DISCUSSION

The school is a social system and it provides a communicative environment. In this sense, the class can be considered one of the environmental factors in speech acts. Therefore, the SL class also functions as an environmental factor for SL learning and language development. In this section, the question is: "Do lesson speech events satisfy the conditions for SLA?" This question involves discussions of whether or not class events are functioning as a field of

SL input and interaction through the speech acts.

1. FEATURES OF CLASS SPEECH EVENT

In this study, SL classroom speech events were divided into four transitional speech events; opening, review, lesson, and closing. This classification was compared with Cazden's(1983) trifold categorization, even though she did not specify the review speech event in the functional domain. Her description of the lesson event was as a part of the presentation of contexts in the classroom. In the ESL classes, language plays, language games, and other activities were frequently performed, while KSL classes usually employed drama, quizzes, songs, and role playing.

In spite of such differences, both class lessons were distinctively composed of four transitional speech events. The opening and closing were mainly concerned with socialization functions for beginning SL learners in either formal or informal settings. The differences in activities and functions between the review and 'core'(Cazden, 1983) lesson were shown to be in the interactional domain. In review events, the presuppositions and discourse topics were based on the mutual knowledge and even when they were teacher-oriented they were in relation to old information. On the other hand, in lesson events the topics were closely related to new information in the academic area and functions were based on instructional elements. Of the two interactional functions, the review event seemed to be directed toward speech acts based on conversational implicatures, whereas the lesson event tended to perform instructional functions. These aspects indicated that the four class speech events individually must have manifested unique functional features in quality and quantity. By 'quality' is meant that speech acts for interaction occurring in the respective speech event are different in the presupposition and postulation. Quantity means that activities in interactional organizations can affect turn-taking order and frequencies, which are different from other speech events.

Another organizational feature of class speech events can be seen in the structure of speech acts, for example, the conversational structure. The conversational organization of class events can be said to be centripetal systems, while outside school conversation can be described as linear ones. The stratification of social structure provides classroom conversation with an unequal power relationship between teachers and students. The notion of inequality is that of a lateral view. Teacher-centered, centripetal organization of classroom conversation is the notion from a bird's-eye view of the dynamic, interactional organization of class events. Classroom conversations are usually supposed to occur on the notion that the distance and relationship between teacher and every student are equivalent.

Philips(1983) refers to the teacher-oriented classroom discourse structures as the official structure of classroom interaction, saying:

> ... in the regulation of official addressor-addressee relations in the classroom, it is usually *only* the teacher and not other students who can enter into such relations with the students... at any time interaction is being sustained through talk, the teacher will sustain one end of the floor....(p. 75)

That is to say, classroom conversation is presupposed to be, at least theoretically, unaffected by the individual student's home background and parents' social status, even though it is affected a little by the topic or task in the classroom interaction. The differences in the number of participants illustrated individual teacher's turn-allocational mechanisms in the classroom conversation. Specific organizational characteristics of classroom speech events can be found in "the interaction between teachers and students" (Mehan, 1985, p. 120). Cazden(1983) suggests that classroom speech events play a role in facilitating question-answer style conversations while the learner's participation and acquisition of other discourse forms do not.

To synthesize, the four transitional speech events in SL classes seemed to be similar to those found in other cultures(Mehan, 1985). In openings and closings, interactional and interpersonal functions were frequently emphasized, while review events tended to provide heuristic and communicative functions. In lessons the instructional functions were usually focused. Teacher-centered, centripetal discourses tended to limit a few specific types of interactional functions such as question-answer and directive-declarative type of interactions. The functions of SL class lessons for SLA will be discussed in the following part.

2. FUNCTIONS OF SL CLASS LESSON FOR SLA

It is obvious that environments vary in their opportunities for the communicative use of language. As far as interactional functions are concerned, the importance of the quality of the language environment should be taken into consideration. Dualy et al.(1982) emphasize quality in terms of macro-environmental and micro-environmental factors. Micro-environmental factors consist of (1) naturalness of the language heard; (2) the learner's role in communication; (3) the availability of concrete referents to clarify meaning; and (4) the target language models. Macro-environmental factors include: (1) salience; (2) feedback; and (3) frequency. The macro-environmental factors imply the significance of pragmatic understanding and language use in SLA.

The naturalness of input language in lessons was related to the degree of formality relevant to contexts. Example 6 revealed an unnatural element as language input.

The utterance '*zeo-nun xxx-ipnita*' was very formal, because the suffix ipnita was used as an extreme honorific expression. Example 16 and 17 also exhibited unnaturalness of input language.

Example 16: (*Tape #41, KSL*)
1 T:->S1 *tasi sizak hae po-seyo/*
DO IT AGAIN.
2 *xxx(S1) putheo han salam ssik/*
FROM xxx, ONE AFTER ANOTHER.
3 S1: ?? *apeozi-ka hwesa-eseo tola o-syeoss-eoyo?/*
HAS FATHER RETURNED FROM HIS OFFICE?
4 Sa: *ye, (1)tola o-syeoss-eoyo/*
YES, RETURNED.

Example 17: (Tape #45, KSL)
1 S3: *apeozi manhwa-lul ilkeoto tweyo.*
DAD, MAY I READ CARTOONS?
2 Sn: ** *ye, ilkeoto tweyo.*
YES, YOU MAY READ THEM.

According to Korean grammar, Example 16-3 could be used if a child asked the question of an older person, while Example 16-4 could be used where a child answered an older person. Either example is unnatural. Example 17-2 also seemed unnatural because a father usually would not use the honorific suffix 'yo' to his child (Chapter VIII will present honorific uses of Korean in detail). Even though these pragmatically unnatural materials were frequently introduced and practiced during class lessons, no further interactions using these materials were observed or recorded during real conversations.

The beginning SL learners' role in class lessons seemed passive, receptive, and restricted due to the characteristics of classroom conversations. Beginning SL learners' passivity was frequently reflected in the SL learners' speech acts which were limited to expressives and representatives which were forced by the teachers. Learners were provided with few opportunities to express directives and commissives.[3]

Thus far this study has presented evidence that the functions of SL class lessons as speech events were restricted by their organization including the passivity of turn-taking, question-answer type of conversation, teacher-centered discourse, and so forth. This restriction, in turn, reduced SL learners' use of the target language. In the lesson speech events, three basic sentence-types, interrogative, imperative, and declarative were used by the teacher, but the SL beginners usually used the declarative. The imperative and the interrogative were infrequently uttered. Such limited functions and formality of language in SL class lesson implied that the structural presupposition rather than the interactional organization itself might be the limitation.

The organizational expectation promotes the formality of lesson speech events and, as Philips(1983) indicates, that every teacher makes an attempt to provide equal opportunities for each student by using three instructional principles. The first is to request 'choral responses', the second is through the use of the 'round', and the third and most common format is a modified 'first-come, first-served' system. Heath(1983) has indicates that "children are not expected to *be* information-givers; they are expected to *become* information-knowers by 'being keen,' and by taking in the numerous lessons going on in their noisy multi-channeled communicative environments"(p. 86). Teachers are the information-givers, and students are the information-receivers. The teachers in this study did not often call upon the students to play a role as information-giver or communicator.

The third micro-environmental factor, the availability of concrete referents, was also negative. Both SL class lessons exhibited lack of pragmatic information and the target language in the two settings was used as an instrument of communication. While review seemed to emphasize reflective expressiveness, retrievably heuristic, and interpersonal functions in a rigid turn-taking system, lesson had principally formal, instrumental, phatic, informative, and instructional functions. As reported in the section 'Lessons as Speech Events', instructional functions were likely to be prior to SL learners' communicative intentions. In lesson events students had to judge the functions of language used by their teacher. In other words students had to infer that their teacher's tonal shift from declarative to imperative or interrogative would require their response. Hand-raising, whether casual or habitual, and other nonverbal gestures to get the floor suggest that SL beginners were developing self-socialization and interactional functions prior to informative and heuristic functions or grammatical correctness of language use. These aspects exhibit unsatisfactory conditions of class lessons for SLA in respect to naturalness, the learner's role, and pragmatic availability to acquire the target language.

The use of language in class discourse differed from that outside the classroom in that in a naturalistic environment, "language is a means to an end", whereas "the language class is a contrived context for the use of language as a tool of communication" (Seliger, 1983, pp. 250-251). SL beginners were not expected to provide and present new information in academic or other areas, but they were requested to receive it and to practice the language in drill exercises and other activities in the language learning context. In the meantime, SL beginners are asked to switch into a role for the use of the target language for real communicative objectives such as asking for explanations, making small talk, commenting, and eliciting new information.

Language models in the lesson were the teacher and peers. Some students who raised their hands were expected to make an appropriate reply to the teacher's question or to elicit some information. Felix(1981) suggests through his experimental studies of 34 German high school students learning ESL that "formal instruction cannot eliminate or suppress those processes which constitute man's natural ability to acquire language(s)"(p. 87). Thus the informal social interactional environment in the classroom can be established by the way teachers "structure classroom groups and activities" (Johnson, 1983, p. 65).

The direction of classroom functions to the real communicative functions seemed to affect the formality of the class lesson. The artificial nature of teacher-student conversation provided evidence that there was the lack of any real communicative purpose in SL class lesson of this study. This evidence implied that SL learner's language often might become more complex and effective if they had to deal with real communicative task. Implications will be presented in the Chapter IX.

.3. DEVELOPMENTAL ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE USE

Halliday(1975) construes language development as pragmatic and mathetic functions. The pragmatic mode of meaning, language in action, creates the need for complex semantic configurations; while the effective response to the demands creates the conditions for their continued expression and expansion. The mathetic function involves the use of the symbolic not as a means of acting on reality but as a means of learning about reality. This use of the symbolic is the primary context for the evolution of the ideational systems of the adult langauge. He generalizes that in Phase I children construct a distinction between two semiotic modes, the pragmatic and the mathetic. In Phase II they have not yet learned that language is not just an *expression* of shared experience, it is an *alternative* or a means of imparting the experience to the other.

Classroom interactions can be viewed as the sustained production of chains of reflexive and reciprocal acts, constructed by two or more participants each monitoring and producing the actions of the other which are differently interpreted from those rules applied in other social situations and speech events (Levinson, 1983).

Teacher: *What are you laughing at?*

Child: *Nothing*

(Levinson, 1983, p. 279)

This conversation shows that the teacher's question functions as a command to stop laughing, and the student's statement functions as the appropriate reply or as an acceptance of that command. They presuppose that laughing, even though differently interpreted according to situations and topics, is a preventive activity in the classroom lesson. Thus, one would question whether or not there is a discontinuity between the type of conversational interaction in class speech events and those of the home. It is expected that children find it difficult to satisfy the linguistic demands of the school owing to such differences. However, Edwards(1979) states that there is little evidence that children are deficient in the basic elements of language as a result of their home background. Many issues are left unresolved.

SL beginners of this study acquired commissives first in the opening and closing of the class lesson by means of ritualized utterances *'I am fine, thank you'*, in answering the teacher's initiated greetings *'How are you, B?'*, and so on. At the primitive stage in the process of question-answer lesson speech acts, SL learners used only representatives, irrespective of felicity condition, and on the basis of maxim of cooperation and quantity, not quality. Directives came later than these two types, and commissives and declarations were seldom used during classroom speech events. Teacher talk used directives and commissives, and evaluation was realized in the form of expressives and representatives. These formal and interactional restrictions seemed to delay the expansion of language use (see Chapters V, and VI). The results of the data analysis and observation of SL learners in the present study support Halliday's(1975) interpretation of language development.

4. SENSITIVITY TO TURN ALLOCATION

One of the implicit, but clear aspects of classroom conversation and interaction was a rigid observance of turn-taking rules. Turn-taking sequences in the homogeneous language users' conversations are performed with few overlaps and few gaps between turns. Such a smooth flow and transition of turns may be established owing to shared knowledge about the language and mutual understanding as well as the cooperativeness of the participants. Sacks et al.(1974, 1978) suggest that the turn-taking organization is a set of rules with ordered options, and thus is a 'local management' system and 'interactionally determined' system. However, the differences of classroom conversations from everyday conversations rest in those of turn-allocation techniques, and adjacency pairs'. That is, the kind of paired utterances such as question-answer, greeting-greeting, offer-acceptance, and so on.

The data and observations in the present study showed that classroom conversational sequences tended to violate the current speaker-select-the next speaker principle and turn sequences were, in nature, not necessarily recursive. In SL classroom conversations, the current speaker does not necessarily choose the next speaker, but the teacher does. Adjacency pairs are not strictly observed by expectable second parts. Thus, speech acts in the lesson by turn-allocation principles cannot be expected.

Levinson(1983) states that the turn allocational system will "require minimal units over which it will operate, such units being the units from which turns at talk are constructed"(p. 297). Turn-taking is pre-allocated by the rank of the participants or by the seat placement of the participants. In this sense, the rules are valid for the most informal, ordinary kinds of talk. SL classroom turn-taking mechanism reflected the invalidity of the rule application. Levinson(1983) says that "in English-speaking cultures too there are special non-conversational turn-taking systems operative in, for example, classrooms, courtrooms, chaired meetings and other 'instructional' settings, where turns are (at least in part) pre-allocated rather than determined on a turn-by-turn basis"(p. 301). Mehan(1985) indicates the differences between discourse in everyday life and discourse in classrooms, in terms of turn-taking and sequential organization, and points out that the current speaker-select-the next speaker pattern of turn taking is "not duplicated in classroom lessons"(p. 126).

SL class speech events are basically 'three-part organizations'(Mehan, 1985). By 'basically' it means that feedback or back-channelling was often omitted in the sequences of class speech events. Mehan(1985) states that "the instructional phase of lessons is composed of characteristic interactional sequences"(p. 121) and indicates that these sequences usually include three interconnected parts of acts: initiation, reply, and evaluation. These organizational differences influenced the structure of SL classroom discourse, which will be dealt with in the following section.

Utterances in conversation are not produced in isolation, but in some sort of sequence or situation. Adjacency pair (Sacks et al. 1974) means that utterances often come in pairs. For example, greeting-greeting, question-answer, statement-acknowledgement, and so on. However, McTear(1985, p. 33) criticizes these units, saying "adjacency pairs are not sufficient as a descriptive unit, because items can be inserted or embedded between a question and its answer"(p. 33). The followings is an example presented by Mehan(1985).

A: have you seen Mary? Q1
B: Mary who? Q2
A: Mary Webster A2
B: oh her, no I haven't A1

Here a second question-answer(Q2-A2) pair is inserted between the first question(Q1) and its answer(A1). Some utterances can be described as having a preparatory function in relation to a subsequent pair.

Turn-insertion and centripetal organization observed in the SL classroom provided evidence of a violation of adjacency pairs. Firstly, adjacency pairs do not account for relations between all the utterances in a conversation, even allowing for embedding and presequences. Secondly, within the descriptive conversational analysis, the units were not defined explicitly enough for us to be able to delimit the range of possible second pair and thus distinguish possible from impossible response (McTear, 1985).

Like the adjacency pair, the exchange is the minimal unit of interaction, consisting of at least one move by one speaker which initiates the exchange, and a second move by another speaker which responds to this initiation. Intiations are prospective, because they set up predictions about what type of response is possible. Responses are retrospective, because they fulfil the predictions set up by a preceding initiating move. The third type of move, follow-up, differs from initiation and responses in that it is neither prospective nor retrospective. That is, it does not predict a further response, nor is it a response to a preceding move. The clearest cases of follow-up moves are to be found in classroom discourse, where the teacher elicits a response from a pupil and then follows this response with a move which accepts or evaluates the responses. The centripetal organization of classroom conversations can be explained in terms of the exchange, not of adjacency pairs. The teacher initates the exchange and a student responds to this initiation, followed by a follow-up move. The teacher accepts or evaluates the responses.

5. PASSIVE AND ACTIVE TURN-GETTING

If SL classroom conversational organizations reveal the unique turn-allocation techniques and the violation of adjacency pairs, can the turn-taking rules be regulatory and significant for SLA? What is the benefit of the turn-taking rules in SL class lesson? An attempt was made in the present study to introduce psychological, motivational elements to the socio-culturally accepted turn-taking rules.

Since the significance of turn-taking rules in the SL classroom conversation depended on its quality, it is necessary to understand the turn-getting systems in terms of social relations of the speaker and the addressee, and of the speaker and the addressee's attitude toward information. What should not be overlooked was psychological attitude toward turn-getting or getting the floor. It is obvious that talk at turns is considered in relation to SL learner's motivation, and attitudinal or epistemological aspects. The smooth flow of conversation between two participants using the same language is attributed to pragmatic information: (a) the cooperative attitude toward information, (b) contextual understanding, (c) understanding of the speaker's communicative intention, (e) understanding of syntactic, phonological, semantic, lexical, and pragmatic constituents, and their relations, and (f) observance of turn-taking rules in conversation.

Are turn-taking rules regulatory rules or constitutive rules? The first are the kind that control antecedently existing activities, such as traffic regulations, while the second are the kind that create or constitute the activity itself, for example, the rules of game(Levinson 1983). Halliday(1974, p. 187) indicates that rules of sequencing and turn-taking "do not specify relations between the social context and the text, but they do take account of features of the nonverbal environment in specifying the sequence of verbal events."

Edelsky(1981) suggests two distinct varieties of conversational floor; they are the 'orderly, one-at-a-time type' and an 'apparent free-for-all or the 'collaborative building of a single idea'. Edelsky(1981) concluded that one-at-a-time types were more frequent than apparent free-for-all types. The former was characterized by the following: people took fewer, but longer turns; there was more frequent use of the past tense; there was a greater use of the reporting function; and there were more side comments and encouragers.

Allwright(1980)[8] presents the following analytical categories useful and usable in turn-taking analysis:

Turn getting

1. Accept	Respond to a personal solicit.
2. Steal	Respond to a personal solicit made to another.
3. Take	Respond to a general solicit(e.g., a question addressed to the whole class).
4. Take	Take an unsolicit turn, when a turn is available - "discourse maintenance."
5. Make	Make an unsolicit turn, during the current speaker's turn, without intent to gain the floor (e.g., comments that indicate one is paying attention).
6. Make	Start a turn, during that of the current speaker, with intent to gain the floor(i.e., interrupt, make a takeover bid).
7. Make	Take a wholly private turn, at any point in the discourse (e.g., a private rehearsal, for pronunciation practice, of a word spoken by the teacher).
0. Miss	Fail to respond to a personal solicit, within whatever time is allowed by the interlocutor(s).

Note. from R. Allwright, 1980, pp. 168-169.

Turn-taking systems are considered a preparatory activities for communication and conversational interactions. If it is right, the speaker's communicative intention of speech acts should not be disregarded. Verbal and nonverbal interactions include the speaker's roles and the hearer's roles. Theoretically, if the turn-taking rules belong to regulatory rules, the superficial aspects would be analyzed, whereas if it is one of the constitutive rules, the contextual use and the turn-taking systems will be motivated by the speaker's attitude toward the hearers and information. Levinson's(1983) statement that "the turn-taking system directly motivates the prosodic and syntactic signalling of turn completion and incompletion can be expanded and extended to the following comment: 'the turn-getting systems also motivates the on-going utterance of the speaker"(p. 363).

The turn-taking system, which looked like a sort of pressure on SL beginners, was not automatically allocated in a given SL lesson speech event. It seemed to influence pragmatic information, but not semantic information. In other words, communicative intention, speaker's attitude toward information, and linguistic structures were affected or modified by the turn-taking rules. The turn-taking rules tended to overrule other pragmatic information and affect, positively or negatively, speech acts. It was almost impossible to count and measure how and to what extent SL learners were affected by the rules in every context. Nevertheless, the following chapters will reveal and describe some evidence that SL learners' motivation for getting the floor affected and modified their comprehension and use of the target language.

NOTE

1. *Context perception* means the type of message construction definced by the structure of a particular situational context, and *verbal pertinency* means the choice of words and structures which must conform to the demands of a concrete situation (Titone, 1983).

2. Allwright(1980) distinguishes a personal solicit and a general solicit in the classroom conversation. The personal solicit is corresponding to a turn allocation to a nominated student, and a general solicit is to a question or request to the whole class prior to turn allocation.

3. Searle(1976) proposes five basic kinds of action in speaking:
   1. representative, which commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition - asserting, concluding
   2. directives, which are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something - requesting, questioning
   3. commissives, which commit the speaker to some future course of action - promising, threatening, offering
   4. expressives, which express a psychological state - thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulating
   5. declarations, which effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extralinguistic institutions - declaring war, christening, firing from employment

4. Schegloff & Sacks(1973) suggested that adjacency pairs are sequences of two utterances that are (a) adjacent, (b) produced by different speakers, (c) ordered as a first part and a second part, and (d) typed, so that a first part requires a second.

5. Allwright(1980) states that these categorizations are of the high-inference type, applicable to verbal and nonverbal behavior, operational, and workable for quantitative analysis.

Chapter V

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: MORPHOSYNTACTIC DEVELOPMENT

The importance of environmental factors rests in the interaction of beginning SL learners with contexts, not in the structure of classroom discourse itself. Morphosyntactic development is directly related to the transactional aspects of SL learners with language and environmental factors. Therefore, this chapter is concerned with the question: "What strategies do beginning SL learners employ for communication in the classroom?" Comprehension and production are the primary strategies used by SL beginners for communication.

The first section deals with the results and findings obtained by means of synchronic analysis of data which are concerned with word-level, phrase-level, and sentence-level syntactic development of SL learners.

The second section discusses the results and findings of morphosyntactic analyses in relation to SL beginners' erroneous use of language. The main issues are related to the questions: "What relations are there between communicative alternatives and particular morphosyntactic structures?" and "How do SL beginners incorporate conversational strategies into linguistic communication?" In addition, this section considers the impact of volitional turn-taking mechanisms on the classroom discourse.

A. FINDINGS

The first part is concerned with strategies which beginning SL learners used for listening and producing word level and sentence level utterances according to developmental stages, the second part with phrase level utterances, and the third part with sentential level. Through increasing understanding of SLA processes, code-switching was identified as an important aspect in SLA. The functions and use of code-switching is dealt with in the fourth part.

1. LEXICAL UNDERSTANDING AND USE

Beginning SL learners in this study started to acquire the target language from the unsettled, indefinite stage of semantic and pragmatic information about lexical items, and then they moved to the phrasal level, to the modifier level, and up to discourse units, according to linguistically developmental stages and school programs. An utterance tended to reflect its proposition, which was a unit of meaning that conveyed the ideas speakers wanted to express. SL beginners' utterances manifested several types of pragmatic information. Their utterances were quantitatively and qualitatively affected by their language development and the motivation or process of passive or active turn-getting. Based on their spontaneous utterances , the stages were divided into two - 'one-word utterance and multi-word utterance' - stages. Even though there were apparent distinctions between two stages, the first month of the observation period was corresponding to their one-word utterance stage, and the later months were their muli-word utterance stage.

(A) ONE-WORD UTTERANCE STAGE

Several features were characteristics of the SL learners' one-word utterance stage. The first one was chunking understanding. Some chunks were used without any understanding of their meaning by second language learners before the transition to the next step of creating novel utterances of their own by the decomposition of chunks and language constituents.

Example 18: *(Tape #5, ESL)*

1 T: *Now, look/ P, what does the tiger say?/X/ Do you know what a tiger says?/*
2 P: *(4) T/*
3 T: *Not how do you spell a tiger/ A cat says Meow(::)/ Tiger ( )/ What does a tiger say?/*
7 P: *KHH(::)/*
8 T: *Good/ What does a rabbit say?/*
9 B: [making a gesture like a motion of hopping with his hand]

On line (1) of the above conversation, P took a turn passively from the teacher. In her first response, it seemed that she remembered only her teacher's usual question in the class: "What letter does tiger start with?", and she answered 'T'. P did not distinguish the meaning of say from spell. She inferred the utterance meaning and interpreted it as a sentence level meaning which was stored in her memory, in the passive turn-getting situation. Teachers presented sentence-type utterances to SL learners as input materials, and the students seemed to understand what the teachers wanted them to say or to do. They inferred the teachers' sentence-level utterances by their old information and stored knowledge. They did not seem to analyze and interpret the constituents of the sentence-type utterances and their meanings, but to infer or guess the chunked meaning as it related to the coherence of the previous discourse.

The second feature was the categorization of lexical items into given information and stored knowledge. This trend of categorization seemed to be related to bi-directional categorization strategies: bottom-up or top-down. The following examples indicated that ESL learners tended to use their own operative strategies for memory processing through the association with similar features.

a) kangaroo, zebra, giraffe => *long neck*

b) buffalo, horse, cow => *cow*

ESL beginners often named the word on the right column (*long neck*, and *cow*) when they referred to the items given on the left columns. Another example was that P often used 'orange juice' for an orange on the one hand, nor could she distinguish hand from finger. These supported the multi-directional internalization of word meaning associated with lexical components.

Example 19: *(Tape #3, ESL)*
1 T: ->C *Okay, alright/ What's that?/*
2 C: *Cow/*
3 P: *Cow/* (Steal)
4 T: *That not a cow/ It's like a cow/*
Buffalo/
6 Ss: *Baf(.)allo/*

Example 19 showed that beginning ESL learners, C and P, picked up the word cow for buffalo by means of sorting strategies. Both cow and buffalo seemed to be merged into the word cow. This process of using strategies can be termed as 'bottom-up'. In other words, cow and cow-like animals were referred to as the word 'cow'. On the other hand, the KSL students easily acquired the words like 'tree', 'flower', 'bird', and so forth, but did not refer the name of a tree, a flower, a bird, etcetera. The same was true for the ESL students. This process of strategic thinking seemed to be related to 'top-down' strategies. In addition, the retrieval of lexical meaning tended to reflect the availability of concrete referents of an object, that is to say, pragmatic information.

Thirdly, especially in the passive turn-getting sequences, SL learners' replies tended to be based on pragmatic information and conversational cooperativeness prior to semantic information, for example, truth-condition. The following example indicates that SL beginners employed old information to retrieve and elicit new information.

Example 20: *(Tape #5, ESL)*
1 T: *Uhm?/ What letter is this, P?/*
2 P: [silent] (10) *Butterfly/*
3 T: *No/=what letter is this?/*
4 P: *F/* -
5 T: *Good girl/ What does F say?/*
6 P: [silent]
7 T: *Look at this card/ What does S-H say?/*
(3) S, H/
9 P: *S, E/*(Fade-out) (Turn-giving)
10 T: *SH say /sh/, listen /sh/, C/*
11 B: *Fish/* (Occupation)
12 T: *fish/X/., okay/* (Permission)

P was allocated a turn passively, and P expected that she would take the floor after B. When she was unexpectedly asked to read the word, fish, she uttered butterfly. Her reply did not associate with the categorization process. It could not be explained by the terms of semantic components. At first she employed chunking understanding about the teacher's question. On line (11), B occupied the turn instead of C, and made a correct answer. In addition, P showed some evidence of phonological immaturity, misunderstanding, and morphosyntactic misapplication when she took a turn passively as shown on line (9).

Example 21 below also shows that unanticipated passive turn-gettings or speech acts without any communicative intention are likely to induce SL learners' errors or mistakes in formal classes, and the teacher's feedback does not directly influence SL learners' correction.

Example 21: *(Tape #31, KSL)*
1 Sn: *na-nun eomeoni-ul chaek-ul*
pilleoss-eoyo/
I BORROWED MOTHER'S BOOK.
2 T: ->S3 *taum, xxx/*(S3) (1) *na-nun/*
NEXT, xxx. I...
3 S3: * *na-nun (.) ku woosan-ul,/*
I ... THE UMBRELLA
4 T: *xxx(S3)-nun MAGICIAN inka pwa-yo/*
IT SEEMS THAT xxx IS A MAGICIAN.
4a [Students are laughing aloud.]
5 *xxx-nun chaek-ul pilleot-nunte chaek-i*
6 *woosan-ulo pyeon hae-yo/ keuleonikka,*
MAGICIAN i-jo/
xxx CHANGES A BOOK INTO AN UMBRELLA.
AND SO, HE IS A MAGICIAN.
7 *yeoleopoon, ma(:)soolsa MAGICIAN-un mak*
ile-yo/ [making a gesture like a
magician]
LET ME SEE, A MAGICIAN BEHAVES LIKE
THIS.
8 *sonsookeon-i mak sae-ka twe-jo?/*
A HANDKERCHIEF IS CHANGED INTO A BIRD.
9 *xxx-un chaek-ul/ =woosan-ul*
pilleot-nunte chaek-i twess-eoyo/
xxx ... A BOOK, BORROWED AN UMBRELLA,
AND IT BECAME A BOOK.
10 *eotteokhe haeya twe?/ na-nun(.)/*
xxx(S3) haebon-ta/
WHAT CAN WE SAY? I... xxx, TRY.
11 S3: * *na-nun ku woosan-ul,/*
I ... THE UMBRELLA
[All students are giggling and laughing aloud.]

In Example 21, the teacher wanted students to substitute two linguistic components in a series of contrastive utterances: borrowed vs. returned, and Mother's vs. the. She expected S3 to utter "I returned the book." He had not anticipated his turn at all, because he was seated far from Sn. Had he expected to be nominated as the next speaker, he might have attended to the previous conversations "I returned the umbrella." His utterance included some constituents of the previous discourse. The teacher wanted to correct his utterances, but he repeated the same mistakes "I ... the umbrella" as shown on line (11). In that context, S3 did not have the book nor the umbrella, which indicated ~~lack of~~ deictic or pragmati pragmatic availability of the referent object. Even though the teacher indirectly provided S3 with a cue on lines (5) and (6), the student did not make a correct answer on line (11). Example 21 shows that passive turn-taking by the sudden modification of turn order induced the misapplication of new and old information in the case of response. The response was a kind of information switching.

Another feature was association strategy of phonological components. Understanding and production of an utterance reflected similar phonological properties. In this conversation

Example 22: *(Tape #15, ESL)*
1 T: *What is this called?/*
2 B: *mountain/* (Allocated)
3 T: *Ah!/ Ha!/ mountain/ monster/*
4 Ss: *monster/*

paraphrasing of a word by multi-directional categorization, and the use of phonological cues from a similar-sound word were among the characteristics of passive turn-getting situations. In Example (22), B referred to mountain which has similar initial sounds /m/ and /t/ as in the word monster. B seemed to exploit phonological components prior to monitoring the meaning of the word.

(B) MULTI-WORD UTTERANCE STAGE

It was found that the transition from one-word utterance to multi-word utterance of SL learners was not clear, because the two stages co-occurred in the SL learning. At the multi-word stage, subjects showed a preference for simplified forms of utterance in production. The content and topics from their learning were not reflected in their utterance forms. At this stage, they were also silent when they could not find the appropriate word, or phrase, or sentence-level utterance.

The first characteristic of the multi-word utterance stage was a tendency to extend topicalization (see the following part 3) to sentential level of topic-comment (see part 3 of the next section).

Example 23: *(Tape #5, ESL)*

1 T: *S/H/ okay/ What is this, P?/*
2 P: *This is (1) a (10)/* [shaking her head]
3 C: *This is a/X/ sh/-snak/* (Occupation)
4 T: *Snake/*

On line (2) of Example 23, child P uttered "This is a..." This utterance shows that topicalization is salient at the multi-word stage. Then, C occupied a turn, and provided an almost correct answer.

As the subjects moved to phrase level utterances, they frequently omitted predicate verbs. The following conversation in Example 24 shows some aspects of SL learner's misapplication and omission of predicate verbs.

Example 24: *(Tape #2, ESL)*

1 T: *Good, very good/ P, where is your nose?/*
2 *Nose/ Good girl/* [pointing to ears, and hair] *Here?/ here?/*
5 P: **This no( )/*[pointing to her nose]
3 T: *This is my nose/*
4 P: ** This my nose/*
5 T: *This is my nose/*
6 P: ** This my nose/*
7 T: *C, where is your mouth?/*
8 C: *Here i(:)s my mouth/*

Another characteristic of this stage was a decreased frequency of active turn-getting, as these SL learners were increasingly sensitive to context and teacher's attitude. They were sensitive to feedback of teachers, and to other students. The content of feedback influenced the next speaker's utterance more. In addition, in the interview, semantic configuration, and syntactic forms were less utilized than phonological context, discourse deixis, and chunking understanding of an utterance.

2. PHRASE LEVEL UTTERANCES

The transition from one-word utterance stage to multi-word utterance stage was manifested by the use of determiners and predicate verbs. Determiners are constituents of noun phrases and predicate verbs are those of verb phrases. This part is concerned with SL learners' use of target language at the phrase level utterances, and focuses on their use of determiners, case markers, and predicate verbs.

(A) USE OF DETERMINERS

The use of determiners seemed to be related to the students' attitude toward and understanding of spatially deictic information. Among the use of determiners, that of articles was most frequently observed. The developmental aspect of the acquisition of articles is shown in Table 9:

Table 9. Turn-getting and use of articles

Turn-getting		Step								
		I			II			III		
	Children	B	C	P	B	C	P	B	C	P
Active	Correct				1				1	
	Deviant	2							1	1
Passive	Correct			6	13	10	6	6	9	2
	Deviant	4	2	2	6	2	2	2	9	1

Note. The numerical statistics of 'passive' in stage II and III included oral practices or correcting items in the classroom

These statistics show the frequency of use of articles in the lessons, but they do not show how much the children made progress in acquiring the use of articles in a specific context. In the classroom situation, articles were a topic of a lesson at the second stage, and the children focused on repetition practice. At the same time, Table 10 demonstrates that no children in this study benefited from mechanical pattern practices. At the beginning stage, it was observed that ESL beginners frequently omitted definite and indefinite articles as in Example 25.

Example 25: (*Tape #3, ESL*)

1 T: *Oh, okay/ what's that?/*
2 B: *A bok*(box)/
3 T: *Right/ The box is brown/*
4 B: *The box is brown/*
5 T: *Let's do the last one/=the last color/*
6 B: *oran/*
7 T: *Orange/*
8 B: * *Book is(3) orange/*
9 T: *Once more/*
10 B: * *Book/*

As shown on the lines (8) and (10), omissions were found in the imitation or mimicking situation. In the second stage, these ESL learners sometimes misused articles in their utterances. It seems that they thought of the article as a part of a sentential structure, not as a modifier or a determiner of a noun. Nevertheless, in the passive turn-taking situation, the determiner deletion was found as a simplified form of utterance. The use of determiners by SL learners in the primitive stage was unpredictable. It seemed that what was important to them was topic or comment on the content, not the grammaticality of their utterances. Their attitude toward new information appeared to be suspicious and the applicability of old information to new seemed severely restricted.

(B) THE MISUSE OF CASE MARKERS

KSL beginners exhibited misuse of case markers, which included nominatives, objectivals, and possessives, even though KSL classroom teachers tried continuously to correct their errors and provide correct information. SL learners at the second stage also showed the omission of case markers as shown in the following examples.

Example 26: (*Tape #36, KSL*)
Stage II
1 Sm: *zeo-nun eoze piano-( ) kasseo-yo/*
I WENT (to play) THE PIANO YESTERDAY.
2 S1: *zeo-nun* football-( ) *haesseo-yo/*
I PLAYED FOOTBALL.
3 T: *zeo-nun football haesseo-yo/*=football/
I PLAYED FOOTBALL. FOOTBALL...
4 S1: football-*ul hasseo-yo/*
I PLAYED FOOTBALL.[adding an objective particle]

In the passive turn-getting situation, the KSL learners frequently omitted objective markers, even though their teacher corrected or filled in the omitted items. A similar omission of case markers also occurred at the third stage.

Example 27: (*Tape #40, KSL*)
Stage III:
1 T: xxx(S3), *sathang-ul neoheo-seo ma(:)lhae po-seyo/*
xxx, MAKE A SENTENCE BY USING THE WORD 'CANDY.'
2 S3: *na-nun sathang-( ) zoha hae-yo/* (Nomination)
I LIKE CANDY.
3 T: *na-nun sathang zoha-yo/ mweoka ppajeosseo-yo/*
I LIKE CANDY. WHAT IS OMITTED THERE?
5 Ss: *UL/*
[Objective Particle]
6 T: *na-nun sathang-UL zoha hae-yo/ kuleokhe twe-jo/*
I LIKE CANDY. IT IS RIGHT.

At all the three stages, KSL learners usually omitted possessive, dative, and locative markers, which were sometimes pragmatically understandable in spite of their ungrammaticality. The following examples represent omitted locatives.

Examples 28: (from *KSL Interview data*)

1 S1: *hankook-( ) kako cha hana sako/* (Tape #53)
I WILL GO (TO) KOREA, AND BUY A CAR ...
2 S2: *hankook-( ) kamyeon hankook ma(:)l halthenikka/* (Tape #56)
BECAUSE I WILL USE KOREAN IN KOREA.
3 S3: *seongtang-( ) kaya tweyo/* (Tape #59)
I WILL HAVE TO GO (TO) CHURCH.

In ESL classes, possessives were introduced at the second stage. The ESL children also omitted possessive markers as shown in the following examples.

Example 29: *(Tape #8, ESL)*
1 B: * ( ) *eye is baloo/*
2 T: *Whose eyes?/ Mr. P's eyes?/*
3 Ss: *No/*
4 T: *whose eyes?/*
5 B: *Mrs. V( )/*

Example 30: *(Tape #11, ESL)*
1 T: *whose hat?/*
2 C: * *hat boy/ boy hat/*
3 T: *whose hat?/*
4 P: * *hat man/*

On line (1) in Example 29, B omitted 'your' or 'her', and made the same mistake on line (5), which was pragmatically acceptable. At the third stage, as shown on the lines (2) and (4) of Example 30, the ESL learner inversed the word order and ignored the case marker. In Examples (29) and (30), ESL students' turns were allocated by their teacher. Similar omissions of possessive markers were also found in the KSL learners' utterances.

Korean has case markers and word-order which influence the deictic and semantic differences. The postponing of KSL learners' understanding and use of case markers tends to be derived from the fact that it would be possible to communicate with each other with the pragmatic presupposition, even without using case markers, as shown in Example 31 below.

Example 31: *(Tape #31, KSL)*
1 Sb: (3) *apeozi-( ) moza/X/-lul* (.)
pilleoss-eoyo/
I BORROWED FATHER HAT, HAT.
3 T: *mweoka ppajeot-jo?/ (1) ui/*
WHAT IS MISSED? UI[Possessive marker].
4 S3: *apeozi-ui/*
FATHER'S

In Example 31, Sb omitted a possessive marker -ui on line (1). His utterance was produced in a pseudo-communication and passive turn-getting setting. In this example either the nominative or the possessive case marker can be used as a suffix which indicates case. If there is pause just after the word apeozi (*father* in English), the word can be interpreted as a vocative. However, in this context, the teacher could easily infer the word apeozi as a case-marker omitted form.

(C) PREDICATE VERBS

Predicate verbs include transitive and intransitive verbs, but the predicate verbs which were introduced to ESL beginners were copulas 'be' and a few transitive verbs such as 'have', 'like', 'eat', and so on. Nevertheless, in most conversations across the three stages in both the classroom and the interview, the minimum specificity of a comment was a one-word command or question, or a one-word response to a question. The omission of copula 'be' and the substitution of predicate verbs were the most frequently-found characteristics of sentence level utterances by ESL learners.

Example 32: *(Tape #2, ESL)*

Stage I:
1 T: *B, what color is your shirt?/*
2 B: * *I have red, white/*
3 T: *My shirt/*
4 B: * *My shirt red and white/*
5 T: *Red and white/ okay/*
6 C: *And red/*
7 T: *And a little bit of orange/ okay/ C, what color is your shirt?/*
9 C: * *My shirt blue/*

The utterance on line (2) shows that B substituted the words I have for my shirt is. The teacher gave a cue to correct his answer, but on line (4) B omitted a predicate verb is. It seemed that the focus of the lesson was on color terms, and the teacher did not fill in the omitted predicate verb. On line (9), C also omitted the predicate verb 'is'.

ESL beginners at the second stage in this study also sometimes omitted predicate verbs in their conversations with teachers.

Example 33: _(Tape #7, ESL)_

Stage II
1 T: _Okay/ this is a horse/ C, this is a horse/_
3 _Okay, B, what is this?/_
4 B: _This is a pish_(fish)/
5 T: _Fish/ okay/ P, what is this?/_
6 P: _* This a(h) tiger/_
7 T: _This is/_
8 P: _This is (2) ah tiger/_

While B uttered a grammatically correct sentence, P did not on line (6). It seems that SL beginners' restricted language world had a limited receptivity for input items. These SL beginners tended to prefer to use and focus on the "point-making" (Bates & MacWhinney 1979) in the selection and encoding of new information.

Example 34: _(Tape #15, ESL)_

Stage III
1 T: _One neck/ Where are his legs?/_
2 B: _Legs// leg, leg/_
3 P: _//Leg/ leg/_ (Steal)
4 C: _Here are/_ (Occupation)
5 B: _* Here is/ two legs/_
6 C: _Here are his legs/_ (Occupation)
7 T: _Very good/ Here are his legs/ I'll ask the question again/ I'll start with P/ Where are his legs?/_
10 P: _* Here is has leg/_
11 T: _Where are his legs?/_
12 P: _* Here is .../_

The above conversation shows that when SL students reached the third stage, they infrequently omitted predicate verbs.

The second aspect of the use of predicate verbs was the immature distinction of plural from singular forms. At the first stage, the SL beginners usually used singular forms of predicate verb -singularization. Even at the third stage, they frequently used deviant singular forms, as shown on lines (5), (10), and (12) of Example 34. The deviant use seemed to occur where new information was learned or introduced, and when they were obliged, or felt obliged, to produce an utterance. At this stage, the distinction between singularity and plurality was not clear. This suggested that the acquisition of plurality in the form of predicate verbs might come later.

Another aspect was that SL learners' use of verbs tended to be centered on present-tense. The direction of deictic understanding and its abstraction was from the 'here-and-now' to 'invisible and untactible' things or facts. Even after they learned the use of past tense, the use showed that they still tended to use the present tense. The deviant use of tense did not contribute significantly to misunderstanding. The SL learners' communicative intention was sometimes inferred and interpreted by the presupposition and deictic distance including the question and answer.

3. INVERSION

There were likely to be at least five basic operations that might be involved in the modification of information. These were addition, contrast, replacement, reduction, and transformation or adaptation.

SL beginners employed a variety of syntactic inversions. Not only the topic element but also the verb phrase, or part of it, and the ritualized sentential order were inverted. It seemed that the first topic initiation was related to the topicalization motivation in active and passive talk at turns, whereas the sentential inversion and imitative utterance occurred mostly in passive turn-getting situaton.

(A) TOPIC INITIATION

Topic initiation manifested end-focus of the subject in a sentence. In literary style, the fronted topic is more useful in giving end-weight to a long subject. However, in conversation, the initiation of topic might be explained in terms of psychological process and a cooperative attitude toward the information and to other participants.

Example 35: *(Tape #3, ESL)*

1 T:		*Okay, excellent/ B, what do you see that's grey?/*
2 B:	*Gwey is TV/*	
3 T:		*Great/ The TV is grey/*

In the utterance of line (2), topic (*Grey*) was moved to an initial position. These SL beginners were not able to understand or recognize the syntactic orders and structures of their utterances.

Example 36: *(Tape #3, ESL)*

1 T: *Excellent/ B, what do you see that's purple?/*
2 B: *Pur(.)ple/ (20) the ( )/*
3 T: *What?/ what is that?/ (3) the book/*
4 B: *The book is purple/*
5 T: *Okay, excellent/ C, what do you see that's purple?/ (45) Bring it here/X/X/*

On line (2) of Example 36, B moved the topic(*purple*) to the front. Instead of the subject, another element was made the topic by moving it to the intial position of the utterance.

(B) SENTENTIAL INVERSION

The inversion of sentential structure shows that SL beginners are likely to perceive and utter an utterance as a chunking.

Example 37: *(Tape #1, ESL)*

1 T:->P *Good/*
2 T: *How are you, B?/*
3 B: *Thank/=thank you, fine/ Thank you/*
4 T: *And C, how are you?/*
5 C: *Fine, thank you/*

The utterance (3) shows that a sentential inversion occurred in the ritualized greeting. In the greeting, the student knew two chunkings; one was "Thank you" and the other, "Fine". Only part of utterances "thank you" or "thank" was inverted.

(C) IMITATIVE UTTERANCES

At the primitive stage, SL learners exhibited no ability to judge or assess the participants' intention in the utterance. They were also severely restricted in syntactic structure or contrast and in phonological understanding.

Example 38: (*Tape #4, ESL*)

1 B: *Cake/*
2 T: *Cake/ do you like cake?/*
3 B: *Cake/*
4 T: *B, do you like to eat cake?/ Do you like it?/ yum/ Is cake good?/X/*
6 B: *Ish cake good/* (Allocation)
7 T: *B, do you like cake?/ (5) yes/ C, do you like cake?/ (3) yes/ yum/X/ Cake is good/*

Since teachers usually give correct information in feedback or evaluation, or provide correct answers or probable cues in the context of instruction and in the lesson setting, teacher talk functioned as a model of imitation, irrespective of semantic components and syntactic order of the utterance. SL beginners tended to understand and produce the information without any semantic configuration and phonological contrast, as shown on the line (6) of Example 38. Beginning SL learners, like child B in Example 38, expected that the teacher would give them some well-formed information and repeated her utterance as a correct answer. They perceived their teacher's informative and instructional functions of language.

4. CODE-SWITCHING

SL teachers and learners used their native language according to the presupposition that the hearer or audience knew their native language. In SL classrooms, code-switching was frequently found in the informal speech of those members of homogeneous minority groups and in the context of instructional or pedagogical procedures.

Example 39: (*Tape #38, KSL*)
1 Sh: *oppa/-oppa-to hankook umsik(.)-ul*
zoha hae-yo/
MY ELDER BROTHER, ELDER BROTHER
ALSO LIKES KOREAN FOOD.
2 T: *we yeokiseo oppa-nun kureozi ankho*
oppa-TO kuraessulkka-yo?/
WHY SHOULD YOU SAY "MY ELDER BROTHER
ALSO" INSTEAD OF SAYING JUST "MY ELDER
BROTHER"?
4 S1: He likes it too/ (Occupation)

Example 40: (*Tape #34, KSL*)
1 T: *toma/* xxx(Sn)*-ka eomma-lul zal towazuna*
pwa-yo, toma-lul alke/ kuleomyeon
nookoo chalye-ya?/ xxx(S3)/
4 I washed the knife/ *kureokhe hankook*
ma(:)llo hamyeon eotteokhe twelkka?/
6 *eung?* I washed the knife/
A CUTTING-BOARD. IT SEEMS THAT xxx(S3)
HAS OFTEN HELPED HIS MOTHER. THAT'S WHY
HE KNOWS THE WORD. AND WHOSE TURN? I
WASHED THE KNIFE. WHAT CAN YOU SAY IT
IN KOREAN? I WASHED THE KNIFE.
7 S3: *na-nun/X/ khal/X/-ul ssiseosseo-yo/*
I WASHED THE KNIFE.

Example 39 is a code-switching aspect uttered by KSL students, and Example 32 shows the teacher's code-switching. The sentential code-switching shown on line (4) of Example 39 has a reiteration function. Translation includes the reiteration function. The teacher frequently regarded the correct translation as evidence of understanding the meaning and use of the target language. The KSL teacher sometimes asked her students to translate Korean into English and assessed the extent of understanding Korean.

Code-switching had a function of message qualification. The teacher sometimes quoted and reiterated English words or sentences corresponding to the same meaning of Korean words or sentences. The utterance "I washed the knife" on the lines (4) and (6) of Example 40 had a message qualification function. In this case, the teacher used code-switching so as to facilitate understanding the Korean language.

Example 41 below shows that the code-switching used by SL learners had a referential function.

Example 41: (*Tape #41, KSL*)
1 S1: *kanzang-un (2) zza-ko (3)* HORRIBLE/ (Allocation)
BEAN SAUCE IS SALTY AND HORRIBLE.
2 Sm: *sokum-un zza-ko masi eopseo-yo/* (Allocation)
SALT IS SALTY AND UNSAVORY.

In this example, a KSL learner (S1) could not find an appropriate Korean word or sentence in conversation, and therefore he expressed the word "horrible" in English on line (1).

Another issue is whether or not code-switching is used grammatically or pragmatically. The interpretation of messages seemed to be independent of the internal grammatical structure of codes, according to social and linguistic situations. In other words, code-switching could be interpreted as a quotation. On line (4) of Example 39, the utterance "I washed the knife" meant "if you say 'I washed the knife'" or "when you say 'I washed the knife'." The same utterance on line (6) meant "please say 'I washed the knife'." The quotational code-switching can be interpreted as a discourse deictic anaphora.

In syntactic terms, code-switching is sometimes transformed into a noun - nominalization. The nominalization function of code-switching shows a tendency to adopt the syntactic structure of SL learners' dominant language in the context. It was found that syntactic rules of code-switching tended to be related to the speaker's intention toward the language mainly used in the situation. The use of code-switching seemed to reflect the syntactic rules of the Korean language system in the case of KSL learners.

Example 42:

1 Sf: *nanun* coke*-ul kacheo wass-eoyo.*

I HAVE BROUGHT A CAN OF COKE.

2 T: You have to apologize*-haeyajo?*

On line (1), the KSL learner added an objective particle of Korean, and the utterance on line (2), the KSL teacher added a duplicate part of have to in Korean haeyajo. These examples showed that the syntactic structure of code-switching followed the rules of target language in the classroom.

B. DISCUSSION

Lexical understanding and use involves the acquisition of two classes of morphemes: bound and free morphemes. Through the classroom interaction, SL learners acquired word meaning in the discourse frame. This section deals with an integrated interpretation about morphosyntactic alternatives, as well as morphosyntactic understanding and use in relation to word, phrase, clause, and sentence level utterances. Other issues are topicalization and ellipsis in terms of a few constraints in language use. In addition, code-switching is dealt with as an emerging alternative for SLA.

1. MORPHOSYNTACTIC UNDERSTANDING

To know a word is to know the sounds and the meanings of the basic lexicons in a specific context. When SL learners acquire the target language, they usually learn to recognize individual words as well as many other things. Knowing a word means knowing the information encoded in a word in complex ways such as morphological, syntactic, phonological, semantic, and pragmatic information.

What was noticed in this study was that SL beginners showed a tendency to learn the target language in a chunk rather than a word unit and its meaning. SL learners seemed to hear an utterance in a chunk, not a word in the utterance, and in order to get pragmatic information. In other words, chunking understanding seemed to be prior to understanding its meaning. At the primitive stage, the meaning of words seemed less significant to SL learners than the chunks themselves. Ventriglia(1982) defines chunks of language as "phrases or units of more than one word that are remembered as a whole"(p. 13). At the beginning stage, SL learners tended to negotiate ego with language constituents. Such a negotiation may be the first interactional process between ego or self and the new language components.

When SL beginners heard the target language as new information, it seemed to have no meaning at all, because they did not know or recognize denotations and connotations of the utterance meaning. Under such circumstances, the input language introduced to them was only a kind of noise. Through their interaction with teachers and other peers, SL learners perceived and recognized unclear categories of the language they heard, which constituted old information. When the teacher provided new information or words for them, they tended to merge the new information into the old information, so that they could grasp the utterance meaning as shown in Example 43.

Example 43:

OLD INFORMATION	NEW INFORMATION
How are you?	*How old* are you?
How do you *spell* a 'tiger'?	What does 'the tiger' *say*?
What is the *first* letter of ...?	What is the *last* letter of ...?

The utterances on the left columns were old information, and those in the right column were new information. Their chunking understanding was evoked to merge the new information into the old information. However, if the teacher's questions included deictic information by gestures or finger-pointing, SL learners could find some clues to their correct answer more easily by virtue of pragmatic understanding of the context. These examples showed that the SL learners tended to make no differentiation in the meanings of *"how are you?"* and *"how old are you?"*: The word old following how in the new information was ignored. The ritualized chunks how are you might be more salient to them, if and only if the word 'old' were not marked or stressed in the teacher's utterances. Chunking understanding also implied that they tended not to separate syntactic components and phonological segments from the whole utterance. In addition, pragmatic information via extra or meta-linguistic cues seemed to be one of the significant facilitating factors for SLA. Chunking understanding and use gave an impression of temporary or transitional phenomena at the early stages. The acceptability or appropriateness of an utterance in a specific context could be understood through conversational interaction in the classroom.

Second, at the primitive stage, SL beginners tended to split the components of the surface structure of the utterance. When some linguistic input was introduced, they tried to separate new information from old information. They often isolated articles from noun phrases (i.e., *This-is-a* [silent]), irregularly substituted or omitted articles, inflectional suffixes, and derivational suffixes. These application manifested such a process of the comprehension and use of the target language. These aspects were also found at the second and the third stages. Such a process was observed to precede their judgment of grammaticalness or appropriateness of an utterance. It was found that SL beginners might store some old and new information without referring to semantic and syntactic decompositional process. Some linguists assume the children's predetermined capabilities for systematic, syntactic formulation, regulatory rules of transformation, and rule-governed generative potentialities. Spliting strategies are an important factor for complexification. Personal difference, social varieties, contextulization cues(Gumperz, 1985), and inconsistent input prompted such a diversification.

Lack of interaction produced another complexification aspect. More specifically, there was switching, hesitation, long pause, and inappropriate use of the target language, even though SL learners established to some extent grammatical correctness.

Example 44: *(Tape #51, KSL)*
Stage I
1 R: *halmeoni-nun eoti kyesyeo?*
WHERE IS YOUR GRANDMOTHER?
2 S1: ** *hana-nun Vancouver-e kyesiko, hana-nun hankuk-e...*
ONE IS IN VANCOUVER, AND THE OTHER IN KOREA ...
3 R: *halapeozi-nun?*
AND YOUR GRANDFATHER?
4 S1: * *halapeozi-nun cheonsung hass-eo.*
GRANDFATHER DID (CHEONSUNG).
5 S1: ** *halapeozi-nun zook-eoss-eo.*
GRANDFATHER IS DEAD (-Hon).

6. S1: *cheonkook-e zikum kyesyeo.*
(HE) IS IN HEAVEN NOW.

Example 45: *(Tape #52 & 53, KSL)*

Stage II & III
7. S1: *tola kasyeoss-eo.*
HE IS DEAD (+Hon).

The KSL learner's utterance (1) was grammatically correct, but hana (numerical 'one' in English) is usually referred to an object in Korean, even though in English 'one' can be used "in contrast with *the other* in the correlative construction:

One went this way, *the other* that way."

(Quirk and Greenbaum 1973, p. 111)

Example 44-4 shows that in Korean 'cheon-sung' is a nonsense word, but its inverted form 'sung-cheon' means 'death'(literally, go to heaven). This sentence was not grammatically, semantically, and pragmatically correct. The sentence 44-5 was grammatically right, but pragmatically unacceptable. In child language, sungcheon, or cheonkook-e kyesi-ta is seldom heard, and these two words can be used in a specific religious background. The use of terms referring to 'death' must vary according to the speaker's or participants' religion. These two examples constitute intra-lingual code-switching aspects. The appropriate use of the word 'tola kasyeoss-ta' was found in the interviews at the second and third stages.

Third, the process of understanding a word, as a word unit, seemed to be either a bottom-up or a top-down process.

Whichever process was chosen reflected individual differences, but the process manifested some aspects of understanding and memorizing the word and its meaning. For example, at the primary stage, ESL learners did not know the meaning of the word 'animal', but could identify or name 'dog,' or 'cat.' At this stage, they did not distinguish the word 'ceiling' from the word 'wall,' until after they learned the word 'ceiling.' KSL learners also employed bi-directional strategies in understanding and use of Korean (see section A of this chapter).

The acquisition of a word may be a process of internalization of the word meaning, and the association of the word with its sound system. The simplicity or complexity of word formation (such as a compound word) was understood by the unit of sound system, but not by the semantic or functional unit, and so the morphosyntactic simplicity seemed to have a little affect on the storage of word meaning. \At the primitive stage, the familiarity of the object did not necessarily contribute to the memorization of the word meaning. Input language materials were frequently presented in the noun forms without suffixes or articles, and in the verb without derivational morphemes. Once language input was provided, SL learners seemed to modify it through the interaction of self with context. At the same time, the strategies for internalizataion seemed to be either bottom-up or top-down.

Fourth, SL beginners tended to distinguish pragmatic information of the utterance from contextual meaning and then to acquire the decontextualized use of the target language. "For every word we learn, we not only its meaning or meanings, but we also know how to use it in the context of discourse or conversation"(Akmajian et al., 1984, p. 55). Their statement indicates that a word or an utterance may have an extended and decontextualized meaning in a conversation, and it may also include various functions according to a specific situation. For instance, beginning SL learners came to know that the reply to "how are you?" would be "I am fine, thank you." The response was in a ritualized form. The SL learners also perceived that such an expression could be used not only in the greetings or the opening of conversations, but as a topic of lesson and in the lesson speech event.

In the lesson speech event, SL learners seemed to be able to adapt themselves to transitional speech events. Whether this ability was related to their physical or mental maturity cannot be answered in the study. To conclude, SL beginners' understanding process of the target language presented some evidence for the input modification through the classroom interaction and the process of SLA with the assistance of pragmatic understanding rather than the importance of input itself.

2. USE OF SECOND LANGUAGE AND ITS CONSTRAINT

Clark and Clark(1977) postulate that comprehension has two common processes: the construction process and the utilization process. They insist that in the construction process, listeners take in the raw speech, isolate and identify the constituents of surface structure, and build propositions appropriate to each. As they build each proposition, they add it to the interpretation they have formed of the sentence so far, and the propositions taken together constitute the finished interpretation. Their hypotheses about the utilization process or the production process, are as follows:

> The utilization process to be taken up rely on three major principles. The first two are the reality and cooperative principles... which lead listeners to assume that the speaker is referring to things and ideas in the real world and the congruence principle, governs the listeners' search for information in memory.... The search for matching or "congruent" information in memory plays a central role in the utilization process. (Clark & Clark, 1977, pp. 90-91).

An utterance is produced with its proposition and constitutes the units of meaning that involve the speaker's ideas. The utterance includes and incorporates the choice of what is to be said and what is to be unsaid. As we have seen in previous sections, functions of class speech events were mainly composed of teachers' questions and students' replies, or vice versa. Considering the classroom speech acts in terms of a question-answer type of conversational interaction, the use of the target language in the SL classroom must be assumed to include the following three constraints.

'Ritualization constraints' (Goffman, 1981) come first, in the complementary sense of system constraints. System-constraints are based on the framework for face-to-face talk as a communication system, while ritual constraints presume that "a feature of face-to-face interaction is not only that it provides a scene for playing out of ritually relevant expressions, but also that it is the location of a special class of quite conversational utterances, lexicalizations" (Goffman, 1981, p. 20).

In the SL classroom interaction, some features of its structure were teacher-oriented, centripetal, and unequal power discourse. Ritual constraints are viewed as those of the turn-getting systems, and SL learners' adaptation of those systems and language use. In turn-getting sequences and adjacency pairs, ritual constraints on the initiation of talk are likely to function in two ways: "one way for the superordinate and another for the subordinate, so that what is orderliness from the superior's position may be excommunication from the inferiors" (Goffman, 1981, p. 25). However, this constraint affected the learner's motivation for classroom activities in terms of activeness and passiveness. And it also seemed to influence the next two constraints.

The second constraint is 'psychological constraint'(Slobin, 1979) on the grammaticality. This constraint may be shown in the word order of a language. Slobin(1979) suggests that "the basic word order of language is closely related to the possible positioning of other sentence elements, besides simple subject, verb, and object"(p. 67). For instance, English has Subject-Verb-Object order and prepositions to denote various relations, while Korean has Subject-Object-Verb order and postposition to indicate various relations, such as spatial, temporal, case, etc. This constraint regulates basic frames of a specific language and forms a conventional norm.

The third constraint is pragmatic constraint, which is concerned with the sentence-internal organization in relation to old and new information. Levinson(1983) postulates that "a major function of topic marking is precisely to relate the marked utterance to some specific topic raised in the prior discourse, i.e., to perform a discourse-deictic function"(p. 88). This constraint limits the interaction between psychological constraints and pragmatic informations. Topocalization and sentence initial stress by means of inversion and various complex forms are included in the pragmatic constraint of language use. Among these constraints on syntactical organization of an utterance, topicalization is most marked in SL learners' utterances. A detailed description of topicalization is presented in the following section.

3. TOPICALIZATION

SL beginners' communicative intentions preceded the grammaticality of their utterances. In other words, SL learners' alternative use of morphosyntactic components appeared to occur according to speech situations, strategies, and topics. Topics were usually given as old information, whereas comments were new information. One of the primary motives for topic selection is topic continuation, at least in a cooperative conversational interaction between/among participants. Since given information is only one motive for topic selection, the topic can be omitted from the real utterances in our conversations. On the other hand, commenting is an uneradicable process in conversational interactions, because it can involve different degrees of explicitness or specification, depending on the listener's needs. The minimal level of topicalization and commenting is expressed by a facial expression, a wink through eye contact, a nod in body language, a finger pointing in some relevant direction, or a silence implicating ignorance, connivance, disagreement, denial or acceptance.

Table 10 shows the differential speech acts according to passive and active turn-getting situation and developmental stages. Assertion and request were realized in the declarative utterances, and interrogatives were seldom used in any situation.

Table 10. Turn-getting and developmental speech acts

A: One-word Stage:

(ACTIVE TURN-GETTING) Speech act	Utterance	Context
Informative:	*three*	pointing to other student's paper
Assertion:	*I am finished*	looking at teacher
Sermon (Vocative)	*Mrs. V.*	pointing to the object
Request:	*Mrs. V.*	
Replying:	complete or incomplete utterance looking for cues from other participants or environments	
(PASSIVE TURN-GETTING)		
Replying:	complete or incomplete utterance from old information gazing, glancing at other participants to search for cues for the questions	

B: Multi-word Stage:

(ACTIVE TURN-GETTING) Speech act	Utterance	Context
Assertion:	*Yellow; five walls*	pointing to the presence of objects
	Here my leg	pointing or touching of location of objects
	No; I don't know; I am no	shaking head, expressing the ignorance of information
	Mrs. V. This yellow	replying of the quality of object
	banana	joking, laughing
Request:	*Mrs. V. I am finished*	
(PASSIVE TURN-GETTING)		
Replying	complete or incomplete utterance	
Assertion:	*I don't know*	negation

At the primitive stage, SL beginners seemed to be restricted in the memory of vocabulary. The SL learners usually used vocatives, '*Mrs. V.*'(their teacher's name) or one-word utterances conveying the old information.

This trend revealed that "sentences tend to begin with stating a definite topic which is given or know, and move on the present new information as comment"(Slobin, 1979, p. 70) or that the lexically limited child usually used vocatives like a first language learning child calling 'Mom,' 'Dad' and the like, pointing or touching the object around the speaker. This indicates that syntactic form does not seem to determine the word order in relation to given and new 'information status' (Brown & Yule, 1983; Prince, 1981). The topicalization aspect of the primitive stage can be said to be characterized by the communicative alternatives in the language use.

At later stages, the SL beginners could actively specify topics for the listener, and they could also modify a topic-comment ordering to satisfy the listener's needs and to contribute to the smooth exchange of information. The relationship between an agent and activities or existence seemed to be agent-oriented. The left-most topicalization or focusing tended to result in the relative weakening of right-most constituents of the sentence level utterance. This omission of linking verb occurred in topicalization and/or focusing of an utterance. In passive turn-getting situations, the ellipsis of verbs and other constituents of a sentence showed an alternative tendency.

Bates & MacWhinney(1979) propose some of the surface mechanisms in English related to the topic-comment function.

Topicalization devices	Commenting devices
Assignment of sentence subject	Assignment of sentence predicate
Initialization in word order	Initialization in word order
Pronominalization	Specific lexicalization
Ellipsis	Lexicalization
Definite articles and modifiers	Indefinite articles and modifiers
Existential sentences	Connectors to previous discourse
(e.g., *There was this guy. He* ...)	(e.g., "yet," "now," "still," "too")
	Contrastive stress

Note. copied from E. Bates & B. MacWhinney, p. 177.

This illustration shows that some aspects of syntax and morphology are associated to some extent with discourse relations. In the developmental aspects of SLA, the SL learner in the first step displayed silence and one-word utterances in their speech act. Akmajian, Demers & Harnish(1984) state that native "English speakers often use the definite article (*the*), passive voice ... and various topicalization constructing to make the focus of their thoughts clear"(p. 454).

As exhibited in the previous section of findings, the SL learners did not use definite articles to express old information and the indefinite article to express new information. They frequently omitted articles in the case of topicalization, even in the passive turn-taking sequences in mimicking the teacher's utterances. Givón(1983) proposes two pragmatic case-roles, and notes that the primary clausal topic and the secondary clausal topic, saying: "Of the two, the subject case tends to code the most important, recurrent, continuous topic... the primary clausal topic. The direct object case codes the topic next in importance, recurrence or continuity ... the secondary clausal topic"(p. 138). In English, few nominals have case markers, whereas Korean has case markers. Topicalization process employed by SL learners showed a leftmost tendency of topic and new information, or right in terms of the word order.

Example 46:

T: *How many cards do you have?*
B: *I have four cards.* (Allocation)
P: *Four.* (Allocation)
T: *What is this?*
P: *Egg.*
B: * *This a pencil.* (Allocation)
T: *Where are your legs?*
C: * *Here my leg.*
B: *Here.* (Steal)

In addition, KSL learners had to acquire speech-act indicators -"morphemes that signal the speech act value (declarative, interrogative, imperative)" (Givón, 1984, p. 70) as verb suffixes. Teacher talk and adult language provided for KSL learners included semantic ordering tendencies, while SL learners' language use was based on pragmatic factors. As Bates & MacWhinney(1979) state, "insofar as both 'topic' and 'comment' compete for sentence-initial position, the child's early ordering strategies may be based on either role. However, topic initialization is presumably based on recognition of the listener's needs, while comment initialization is based on the salience and/or newness of information from the child's perspective"(p. 190).

The findings and results of this study correspond to and support that statement by Bates and MacWhinney. To conclude tentatively, it is possible to predict that at the primitive stage SL learners' pragmatic ordering of an utterance will be comment-topic. SL learners' syntactic errors are induced by topicalization strategies and the cooperativeness of speech acts. Their frequent and developmental errors were the omission or ellipsis of linguistic components. The next section will deal with the ellipsis in detail.

4. ELLIPSIS

Quirk & Greenbaum(1973) divide ellipsis into two classes: ellipsis dependent on linguistic context, and ellipsis not dependent on linguistic context. The usual function of a question in the classroom discourse is to request the students to answer verbally with information that the teacher seeks. "The link between question and response is often reinforced by ellipsis in the response, thereby avoiding repetition of material from the question and focusing attention on what is new"(Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, p. 306).

The aspects of morpheme ellipses used by SL learners in this study were roughly as follows:

1. Total ellipses were manifested by silence.
2. In one-word utterance, initialization by means of sentence subject or sentence predicate was frequently accompanied by ellipses.
3. Multiword utterances revealed the assignment of sentence subject and predicate; by pronominalization; by the use of determiners; by the use of existential sentences

In the process of language development, deviant ellipsis and omission appeared in determiners(articles and demonstratives). This aspect seemed to be affected by topicalization or focusing, regardless of turn-getting motivation. In the passive turn-taking situation, correct use of determiners resulted from mimicking and practice drill in the lesson, which could not always be considered correct use of determiners.

The use of determiners was related to the development of spatial deictic understanding. The data in this study showed only a few clues indicative of deictic development. Even though a lot of input language was provided in the classroom, the misuse or omission of determiners was found in the primitive stage. SL beginners were busy with understanding and storing new vocabulary information. However, at the modifier level, there was an important class of adjectives for expressing definite or indefinite reference. Definite article and demonstratives (*that* or *this*) located the referent by indicating that the listener already knew it. It seemed that the use of articles and determiners were related to topicalization or focusing.

Predicate verbs were frequently omitted in their utterances. At the beginning stage, copular (i.e., *be*) was often omitted in the sentence-level utterance. The omission characteristics were constituents in parentheses as follows:

1. Topic (*be*) Comment : linking verb, copula omission
2. Topic (*Subject*) (*Object*) Predicate : in the case that S and V are topic or comment
3. Topic Comment (*Predicate*) : if predicate is a part of topic.
4. (*Determiners*) Noun

Omission types occurred in the process of topicalization. If they produced predicate verbs in the utterance, they were expected to produce the correct sentence-level utterance successfully so far as they knew the vocabulary appropriate to the response.

At the primitive stage, the understanding of definiteness and indefiniteness seemed to be unclear to SL learners, and the functions of articles were not found in their items. SL learners could not understand the function of determiners. In the passive turn-taking situation, SL learners learned the function and use of articles by mimicking the teacher's utterance, and often omitted articles in the course of mimicking practices. Only a few cases in the active turn-getting situation showed that they used correct and appropriate articles, whereas the correct application of articles in their utterances in the passive turn-taking situation could not be judged as correct use of articles.

5. CODE-SWITCHING

Code-switching is referred to as "an active, creative process of incorporating material from both of the bilingual's language into communicative acts" (Dulay et al., 1982, p. 114). It involves the temporary adopting or shifting from one language into another. Code-switching is different from borrowing in that "code-switching involves the rapid and momentary shifting from one language into another ... linguistic borrowing is referred to as the incorporation of linguistic material from one language into another"(Dulay et al., 1982, pp. 114-115). Loan words found in any language are a kind of borrowing. Types of code-switching can be divided into intra- and inter-language switching, but "the difference between intra- and inter-language switching is only one of degree and not of kind and the notion of bilingualism is no more than a special case of such switching" (Bell, 1976, pp. 110-111). Bernstein (1964) developed the theory of codes - restricted and elaborated codes, but this section does not involve the discussion of his theory. Instead, this study focused on a 'micro-approach'' to code-switching phenomena such as the use of the first language in SL learning situation and its relationship between two language uses.

L1 is acquired in the context of intimate, domestic, and friendly relationships at home in the early ages, whereas SL is learned and acquired in school in a more standardized, formal presentation (Ventriglia, 1982). In the formal situation of school learning, SL beginners do not usually experience the personal, emotional aspects of the target language because teachers use the target language to direct the structure of the activity to an academic end; that is to say, work or task-oriented language. What was observed in this study was that there was little evidence of code-switching in ESL classrooms, whereas KSL classroom displayed frequent use of code-switching. This phenomenon indicates that code-switching might occur in the context of mutual understanding of language background between students and teachers. In particular, KSL classroom teachers often allowed their students to adopt code-switching as a facilitating means of instruction, in the case of interpretation and explanation of some objects and facts which could not be easily described in the target language. Besides of these reasons, code-switching was permissible when the KSL teacher wanted to elicit some new information from students.

Gumperz(1985) comments about the conversational functions of code switching: "Since speakers do understand each other and can agree on what is being accomplished in particular settings, there must be some sharing of codes and principles of interpretation, but this takes the form of taken for granted, tacit presuppositions which are best recovered through indirect conversational analysis"(p. 75).[3]

The beginning SL learners' use of code-switching developed some constraints on its use. In the data analysis of this study, syntactic and pragmatic constraints did not seem to be taught nor mentioned by the teacher in the KSL classroom. Through the interaction, the following constraints were realized in SL classrooms and during interviews.

(A) SHIFT OF FUNCTIONS (part of speech)

Verb, and adjectives are shifted into noun in function, not vice versa, if predicative adjectival suffixes 'ita'(*be* in English> or 'hata'(*do* in English) is added.

Example 47: *(Tape #39, KSL)*

a. plain-*han geo* '*something plain*'
b. beautiful-*han kkots* '*beautiful flower*'
c. ** beautiful-0 *kkots*
d. ** beautiful-*un kkots*

When an adjective+code-switching noun is used, the adjective must be temporarily nominalized or transformed, and an element or morpheme is added. This element or morpheme, however, cannot be induced from the adjective suffix form of the target language, as shown in the example 47-d, where 'un' is an adjective suffix in the word of Korean.

(B) POSSESSIVE + CODE-SWITCHING

In this case, possessive case markers were used or omitted, according to the context. If omitted, the function or case of the word could be changed, as shown Example 48-c.

Example 48: *(Tape #34, KSL)*

a. T: *yeoleopoon-ui* own idea-*lul wonhaeyo/*
'I WANT *YOUR* OWN IDEA'

b. *yeoleopoon zasin-ui* idea 'your *own* idea'

c. you *zasin-ui* idea 'you *own* idea'

d. ?-*yeoleopoon* own idea '*you* own idea'

e. ** your *zasin-ui* idea 'your *own* idea'

In the example 48-d, 'yeoleopoon'(you) is emphasized and/or focused, and it is doubtful whether the word yeoleopoon include the plural meaning in a specific context. The code-switching of the word which does not assign any case marker would be more natural.

(C) TENSE/ASPECT

If tense agreement is not violated, the root-forms or tense-aspect derivated forms can be used with the additional tense-markers in Korean. In this case, root-form can be regarded as nominalization.

Example 49: *(Tape #57, KSL)*

a. S3: all star game lose-*haesseo*
(They) lost all star game.
(Literally, '(They) *did* lose all star game')

—b. T: You have to apologize-*haeyazi*? apologize-*hako tuleo-ka*.

'You have to apologize, don't you? Apologize, and come back to your seat'

c. S3: make fun-*hanun-keo kathaseo, gulaeseo* pull his coat *haesseoyo*.

'I guessed he make fun of me, and I pulled his coat'

Example 49-a shows that the switched word included tense-aspect, and in Example 49-b, the switched word 'haeyazi' (*have to* in English) was used to emphasize the speaker's intention. Example 49-c indicates that the most frequent verb form of Korean was 'hata' and its derivational forms usually denote tense-aspect. It seemed that code-switching functions as a "juxtaposition of two alternative linguistic realizations of the same message that signals information, not the propositional content of any one conversational passage" (Gumperz, 1985, personal communication, July 1985). As shown in the above illustration, repetitive statements in the SL were also common in code-switching, and in some cases "it would appear that one lexical item is thrown into the processing without any special adjustments being made"(Hatch, 1983, p. 88).

Code-switching in the SL classroom was based on stem language and switched language hierarchically.

Example 50:

a. ** I *kongpu*-ed.	*'I studied'*
b. ** I *paewo*-ed English.	*'I learned English'*

Constraints of code switching depended on the base language of the utterance. Example 50 proves that boundary morphemes cannot be switched.

(D) PREDICATE VERB OMISSION

The omission of predicate verbs can sometimes be interpreted as being impolite or as simplified form. This is because Korean honorific expressions are usually realized at the end of an utterance as a verbal suffix.

Example 51: *(Tape #37, KSL)*

S2: *sathang-un* sweety ( ).

('Literally, *Candy (is) sweety*)

Example 51 shows the omission of hata or hapnita after the word 'sweety'. This utterance was pragmatically understandable and acceptable by the child even though a linking verb was omitted. Constraints on switching are somewhat similar to the island phenomena(Ross, 1967). Switching is blocked where it violates the speaker's feeling for what, on syntactic or semantic grounds, is required as a single unit. Psychological constraints were hypothesized in code-switching. The decision or the selection of switched utterance seemed to be constrained by psychological attitude and the users' base utterances.

To synthesize, some aspects and constraints of the understanding and use of code-switching were similar to constraints suggested by Gumperz(1985)'. However, four aspects in this study were not covered by the constraints suggested by Gumperz. Even though the understanding and production of meaningful code mixture and contrast in any one situation requires knowledge about specific cultures and practical experience, at a more abstract level, the process of code-switching is also "governed by perhaps universal underlying constraints, which bear some similarly to the grammatical phenomena in relation to pragmatics"(Gumperz, 1985, p. 90). Any language and culture may have a number of codes, and an individual may function in several codes, or mix them simultaneously. Selection of vocabulary, utterance length, sentence structure, and fluency may be a criterion of the evaluation process of a hearer or a speaker. In this study, code-switching occurred most frequently in negative response signals. The next chapter will deal with SL learners' negation development including KSL learners' use of 'no' as code-switching.

NOTE

1. Bell(1976, p. 115) states 'a micro-approach... would stress such psychological aspects as fluency, accuracy, usage and switching, while the macro- would seek to place the bilingual, or rather the usage of the bilingual, in its appropriate domains and would raise question concerning the relationships between mother tongues and other languages in a given society.

2. Gumperz(1985) proposed the following typology for conversational analysis: Quotation, Addressee specification, Interjections, Reiteration, Message Qualification, and Personalization versus Objectivization.

3. Gumperz(1985, p. 86) suggested the following syntactic and pragmatic constraints of code-switching.

1. Subject-predicate constructions: any noun phrase can be swtiched. The emphatic pronoun is marginally acceptable as in a simple noun phrase.
2. Noun complement constructions: acceptability decreases with decreasing length of the contrasting phrase.
3. Object-embedded relative clauses: it can optionally be deleted, and pronoun deletion is clearly unacceptable.
4. Verb-verb complement constructions: verb complements can freely be switched.
5. Conjoined phrases: both coordinate and subordinate conjoined sentences can freely be switched.
6. Verbs of propositional attitude: when a message is preceded by a phrase like I *think*... I *believe*..., etc. the switch can occur only after the performative verb.
7. Two verbs of propositonal attitudes: when a sentence contains two *believe/think* phrases a switch can occur either after the first of after the second phrase.
8. Idiom constraint: when a phrase is seen as an idiomatic whole it cannot ordinarily be broken up by a switch.
9. Gapping: switched phrases in which the main verb is not repeated are only marginally acceptable at best.

Chapter VI

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: DEVELOPMENT OF NEGATION

This chapter is concerned with the question: "How do SL beginners develop an understanding and use of negation?" There have been many experimental studies by psycholinguistic approaches to developmental aspects of negation. In this study, discourse negation and strategies expressing negation were the focus. The first section deals with developmental aspects of negation such as nonverbal, intrinsic, simple, elaborated negation. The second section focuses on and discusses negation development in relation to developmental pragmatics and communicative alternatives.

A. FINDINGS

SL classroom discourse was largely made up of a question-answer type of conversation, as were the interviewing sessions. It was found that negation occurring in quasi-communicative events in the classroom performed a real communicative, informative function. Developmental aspects of negation were investigated in terms of SL beginners' pragmatic understanding as well as their syntactic understanding. In conversational situations, their linguistic information and attitude toward the participants seemed to affect strategies for negation. Negation strategies varied according to context, but nonverbal, intrinsic, external, and elaborated negations were four characteristics which were used in stages in the target language.

1. NONVERBAL NEGATION

Strategies for negation used by ESL beginners were silence and gestures, suggesting refusal, disagreement, negation or denial. Silence, negative gestures and facial expressions were included in the non-verbal negation. The frequency rates of the non-verbal negation during interviews were calculated as in Table 11-1.

Table 11-1. ESL students' non-verbal negation

Step	I			II			III		
Student	B	C	P	B	C	P	B	C	P
Silence (%)	5.3	37.1	50.7	36.9	11.1	22.4	29.3	4.3	15.2
Gesture (%)	4.4	3.2	4.2	8.5	1.9	16.0	14.3	1.0	4.2

Table 11-1 shows that silence is affected by uncooperative attitude of a speaker as in the case of B. At the first step, B was cooperative and expressed low frequency rates of silence, but he was uncooperative at the second step. Nevertheless, when Step II was compared with Step III, ESL beginners' use of non-verbal negation decreased in frequency. Silence frequently occurred when the next speaker did not know the current speaker's intention, the meaning of lexical items, or the syntactic, semantic, and/or pragmatic ambiguity of utterances. Sometimes silence was followed by the avoidance of eye contact, which was a form of topic avoidance, or disregard, especially in the context of conversation. Example 52 below exhibits a variety of negation strategies.

Example 52: *(Tape #21, ESL)*
1 R: *Do you read English books or Vietnamese books?/*
2 B: *Yeah/*
3 R: *English books?/*
4 B: [shakes his head]
5 R: *Vietnamese books?/*
6 B: [nods his head]
7 R: *Do you know picture books?/*
8 B: *NNo/*
9 R: *Do you know 'Cartoon'?/*
10 B: [silent]
11 R: *Did you see picture movies on TV?/*
12 B: *No/*
13 R: *Do you know 'Sports'?/*
14 B: [nods his head]

Line (4) of Example 52 exhibits negative gesture, lines (6) and (14) affirmative gestures, and line (10) silence. Silence did not appear to imply some discrepancy between the speaker's cooperative attitude toward the participants. The ignorance of the previous speaker's intention and language frequently induced silence and nonverbal negations.

2. INTRINSIC NEGATION

SL beginners usually utter the word 'no' in English to respond negatively, but their utterances sometimes indicated an irregularity of syntactic orlexical applications. Table

11-2 shows that ESL beginners used three superficially or intrinsically negative responses to questions. Question-forms used during interviews were *Yes-No*, *WH-* and alternative questions. ESL learners' verbal responses were of three types: a correct answer 'No', a deviant answer 'No', and a deviant answer 'Yes'. The deviant answer 'Yes' is referred to as an intrinsic negation, since it is superfically affirmative, but its intrinsic meaning is negative.

Table 11-2. ESL students' use and misuse of negative response

Step	I			II			III		
Student	B	C	P	B	C	P	B	C	P
Verbal Negation (%)	38.9	19.4	12.7	13.8	19.1	12.8	20.7	27.5	27.5
No (%)	77.3	80.0	66.7	66.7	74.2	50.4	82.8	79.0	70.0
*No (%)	18.2	10.0	22.2	27.8	19.4	31.3	13.8	18.4	27.5
*Yes (%)	4.5	10.0	11.1	5.5	6.4	18.7	3.4	2.6	2.5

Note. Verbal negation: percentage of verbal negative response out of the total number of turn-takings; *No: deviant use of 'no' to respond *WH-* or alternative questions; *Yes: deviant use of 'yes' to respond *WH*-or alternative questions.

Table 11-2 indicated that the rate of use and misuse of negation by ESL beginners exhibited no evidence of the developmental accuracy of negation. At the primitive stage, ESL learners sometimes apply an affirmative response 'yes' for 'no'. The deviant use of 'yes' can be termed as intrinsic negation. ESL learners' intrinsic negation displays an descreasing tendency according to developmental stages. The comparison of step III with previous two stages, ESL learners used the deviant 'yes' at a low rate. Example 53 shows how SL learners utilized affirmatives and negatives.

Example 53: (*Tape #1, ESL*)
1 T: *P, what is this?/*
2 P: ( )
3 T: *S(:)nake/*
4 P: *Snake/*
5 T: *Snake/ Do you like snakes?/X/*
6 P: *Yeah/*[She nods her head]
7 T: *B, what is this?/*
8 B: *S/n/o/-a/k/e/*
9 T: *Say the name/*
10 B: *S/-sna/-snake/*
11 T: *Snake/ Do you like snakes?/*
12 B: *No/* [unpleasantly]

P used affirmation 'Yeah' in the case of negation, on line (6). This affirmation constituted intrinsic negation, because her real intention was to express negation (She said 'no' when she was asked the same questions in the interviews).

Example 54: (*Tape #29, ESL*)

1 R: *Do you like the cat?*
2 P: *No.*
3 R: *No, what? No, (2) what?*
4 P: * *No, I like the cat.*
5 R: *I don't like the cat. Do you like the cat?*
6 P: * *No, (3) No, I like the cat.*

In Example 54, the utterances (4) and (6) show that the surface form was not consistent with the speaker's intention.

3. SIMPLE NEGATION

The correct answer 'No' and the deviant answer 'No' are included in a simple negation. The presuppositional utterance used to express denial, disagreement, and dissatisfaction is "No" in English. The 'No' in the SL learners' conversation, constituted a simple negation in the syntactic form, but also connotated a variety of meanings. The simple negation has two scopes - narrow or wide. The narrow scope of negation is referred to as the negation "from the negative word itself to the end of the clause, or to the beginning of a final adjunct" (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, p. 187). SL learners tended to use the negative 'no,' to express the wide scope of negation, while the developmental aspects were found in narrowing-down the scope by using 'no', 'not', or 'I don't know' as in Example 55.

Example 55: *(Tape #21, ESL)*
1 R: *Do you speak English or Vietnamese when you talk with your friends at home?/*
2 B: *Yeah/*
3 R: *English?/*
4 B: *Vietnam/*
5 R: *Do you use English at school?/*
6 B: *No/*
7 R: *How many friends do you have in your classroom?/*
8 B: *Two/*
9 R: *Are they Canadians or Vietnamese?/ (5) Canadians?/*
10 B: *No*((WH))/
11 R: *Vietnamese?/*
12 B: [nods his head]
13 R: *Do you use Vietnamese in talking with them?/*
14 B: [nods his head]
15 R: *Can you understand/-hear what Teacher says in the classroom?/*
16 B: *((No))*[shaking his head]

17 R: *How can you talk with Canadian friends?/*
18 B: *No/*
19 R: *Can you understand what your friends say?/*
20 B: *No/*

'No' on line (6) seemed to imply that "I don't use English in the classroom", and "I say no." However, 'No' on line (18) could be interpreted as (i) "I can not talk with them" (ii) "I don't know what you mean" (iii) "I can not understand what my friends say." And 'no' on line (20) implied that "I don't know what you say or what you intend to do." SL learners' negation can be interpreted in terms of wide-scope negation on the basis of communicative intention. Sometimes the negation uttered by SL learners implied "I don't agree with what you say or what you intend to do." It manifested the denial of the truth-condition. Other times the negation could be interpreted as a narrow-scope or predicate negation, which was independent of a truth-condition or logical implication.

In the Korean language, the response systems to the negative question are quite different from those in English (the explanation will be presented in the discussion section of this chapter). KSL learners at the beginning stages seemed to reply to the question by using code-switching 'no.' However, at the later stages, they appeared to use the target language.

As far as the use of response initiator 'no' was concerned, as shown in Table 11-3, code-switching was a means of strategic device of communicative function, and did not reflect the developmental aspects of SLA.

Table 11-3. KSL students' use 'NO' as code-switching

Student	S1			S2			S3		
Step	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III
Frequency rate (%)	-	-	44.4	16.7	71.4	-	75.0	75.0	50.0

Table 11-3 shows that in the case of S3, the decrease of frequency of code-switching bears negative relationships with the developmental stages, whereas the use of 'no' as code-switching by S1 showed no evidence of the relationships.

4. ELABORATED NEGATION

Elaborated negation is referred to as a high skilled discourse negation "(a) proving a reason or explanation for the discourse negation, and (b) providing an alternative to the negated utterances" (Keller-Cohen et al., 1979, p. 317). It seems that the development of this kind of discourse negation is related to that of discourse skill.

What was found in the KSL learners' utterances was the use of polarization terms and rhetoric questions, whereas ESL learners did not reach the level of use of elaborated negation. Negation in Korean has two categories: one is the use of negatives, and the other is the use of polarization of a request or question word. For example, since the word 'eopta'(*is-not* or *have-not* in English) has a polar relation to the word 'issta'(*is* in English), 'eopta' is not classified as a negation.

Example 56: *(Tape #51, KSL)*

R: *wesamchon-tulun Vancouver-e an kyesyeo?*
AREN'T THERE YOUR MATERNAL UNCLES IN VANCOUVER?
S1: *ye, eopseo-yo.* (Literally, 'yes, there are-not.')
NO, THERE ARE NOT.

Example 56 shows that S1 used a correct response signal 'ye' (literally *yes* in English) of negative questions in Korean. It seemed that question-answer types of classroom conversation might facilitate acquiring the appropriate answer to the question forms, negative or affirmative, even though KSL learners usually followed English grammatical rules in using a code-switching word 'no.'

Another characteristic was to provide a reason or explanation for the negation.

Example 57: *(Tape #55, KSL)*

R: *saengil-un eonche-ya?*
WHEN IS YOUR BIRTHDAY?
S2: *na hankook maal mos-hae.*
I CAN NOT SPEAK KOREAN.

In this case, the use of negative response signal 'no' is optional.

The third aspect was the use of rhetorical questions which correspond to negations, in order to continue the topic or emphasize a proposition of the speaker's intention.

The fact that rhetorical questions were found in a few cases in the later stage of one KSL learner indicated that such a negation must require considerable conversational skill.

Example 58: (*Tape #53, KSL*)

R: *hankul-un we paeweo?*
FOR WHAT DO YOU LEARN THE KOREAN LANGUAGE?

S1: *hankook kamyeon halmeoni-hako maalhalchool alaya twechanha?*
ISN'T IT NECESSARY TO TALK WITH GRANDMOTHER WHEN I GO TO KOREA?

In this conversation, S1's intention was that "I need to learn Korean when I go to Korea, where people speak the Korean language, but not English."

B. DISCUSSION

This section deals with discussion about negation development and pragmatic interpretations of negation. The SL classroom discourse was largely made up of sequences of question-answer type of conversations and so were the interviews. If it is right to assume that SL learners' speech can be developed through interactions, a part of the development of their performative function can be explained and described in terms of that of negation. The negation is "the denial of a corresponding positive statement" (Volterra & Antinucci, 1979, p. 281). This section divides negation development into two groups: ESL learners and KSL learners.

1. PRAGMATICS OF NEGATION

Volterra and Antinucci(1979) suggest four types of negation in relation to different presuppositions or performatives. In the performative command, "the speaker believes that the listener is doing or about to do P(proposition)"(p. 284). In the performative assertion, the presupposition is "the speaker believes that the listener believes P"(p. 284), or "the speaker believes that the listener wants the speaker to do P"(p. 284), or "the speaker believes that the listener wants him to confirm or disconfirm a statement"(p. 285). However, SL learners' negations in the earliest stage involved an immediate shared context, and so it was assumed that there was little likelihood of pragmatic misfire. Even though the adult native speaker and SL learner share the situational presuppositions, both negations involving norms and negations involving situations can provide the possibility of presupposition failure. Such presupposition failure seems to be attributed to the disparity between the speaker's communicative intention based on the presupposition and the hearer's misinterpretation based on the supposed-to-be presupposition. Such aspects seemed to occur between adult native speakers and young nonnative speakers(or hearers).

Firstly, there is little guarantee that the hearer shares the speaker's communicative intentions produced by an utterance, even though the speaker believes that the listener believes the proposition. The speaker says 'no' when she or he can not understand the previous discourse or the previous speaker's proposition.

Example 59: *(Tape #22, ESL)*

1 R: *When did you come to Canada?*

2 B: *No.*

As shown in Example 59, the utterance 'no' sometimes implies : "I can not understand what you meant by your utterance itself," or "I can not get the part or the whole of the utterance meaning," or "I don't know the lexicon you used," or the negation of the proposition being asked or requested. Under such circumstances, there is a possibility of producing a strategic negation 'no'. This negation does not always constitute the denial, refusal or disagreement of the previous discourse or proposition. This negation can not be explained as a cooperative response to the question or the request, but is seen as a part of topic delay. Topic delay is a kind of topic discontinuation. Topic discontinuations sometimes occur owing to the speaker's or hearer's mismatch of stored knowledge with mapping ability, and the speaker's attitudes toward the communicators or topics. In this case, the utterance 'no' seems not to be a negation, but a request by which is meant "I beg your pardon," or "Please, speak more slowly," or "Please, tell it to me again."

Secondly, most of the words are ambiguous in their meanings, and each speaker's individual dialects are also ambiguous. Especially, some of the negations uttered by SL learners were found ambiguous. Such ambiguity is derived from the negative response to the previous alternative questions. These negations display 'scope-ambiguity' (Levinson, 1983).' The negative sentence may possibly include the negation of the whole proposition, or that of the part of the proposition; that is to say, it can be interpreted as either a wide or a narrow scope negation. Bever, Garrett and Hurtig(1973) present evidence of hearer's access to all of the meanings of the words they hear and for the selection of the most plausible meaning.

The negative response to the alternative questions usually occur due to the answerer's lack of ability in comprehension and production. It is assmed that SL learners at the early stage can not perfectly distinguish the differences of semantic, syntactic, phonological contour, or the use among/between *WH*-questions, *YES-NO* questions and alternative questions. Propositions within SL learners' speech may at first develop out of propositions created by themselves from their interaction with other speakers. What seems to be salient in the previous discourse or talk is a part of the sentence but the whole meaning in the context. What is salient depends upon the answerer's judgment and is affected by the interrogator's focusing or topicalization or tonal contour.

Thirdly, SL learners' affirmative response can be interpreted as a negation as shown in Example 53 of intrinsic negations. This contradicting response was found at the very beginning stage of SL learning. The superficial, syntactic, or semantic positive assertion may come from the immaturity of comprehension. It is likely that the learners' affirmative sentence can be viewed as a positive assertion, but their meaning is opposite. Pragmatically, such a contradicting response in native adult language use is said to be a lie, joke, sarcasm, reluctant agreement of a threat, or aggressive reaction to the question. SL learners' contradicting response can be viewed as a misunderstanding of an utterance produced by an answerer whose L1 is culturally and syntactically different from the target language, or as topic avoidance.

The first two interpretations are possible on the basis of L1 interference with the target language or of developmental errors of SL learners. The last interpretation involves topic break-down or the uncooperativeness of the speaker. Such blind assertion or negation does not always start from the speaker's cooperative attitude toward the communicators. The entailment of such affirmative sentences may be illogical or pre-propositional, and so the interpretation of such an assertion is plausible by virtue of a synthetic, integrative analysis of the context, the communicators, and/or psychological aspects.

The ambiguity of negation usually arises "between a presupposition-preserving kind of negation and a kind in which both entailment and presuppositions get negated"

(Levinson 1983, p. 201). Even though logical forms including wide-scope negation are not informative, SL learners' wide-scope negation must be necessary to be interpreted as narrow-scope negation by a pragmatic principle, and their positive utterances can be sometimes understood as a discourse negation and predicate negation within the principle of informativeness.

2. DEVELOPMENTAL ASPECTS : ESL LEARNERS

The most salient aspect of SL learners' communicative alternatives is the use of negation. The use of negatives seemed to go beyond the discourse negation, or discourse negations of SL beginners sometimes can not be explained as true or false in semantic terms. Examples 60, 61, and 62 show developmental use of negatives and negative response initiators.

Example 60: (*Tape #21, 24, & 27, ESL*)

Stage I

a) R: *Do you go to church?*
C: *No/*
b) R: *Did you see a zebra?*
P: *No/*
c) R: *Are they Canadians or Vietnamese?*
B: *No/*
d) R: *How many friends do you have in your classroom?*
C: *No/*
e) R: *What tree do you like best?*
B: *No/*

Example 60-a is grammatically correct, simplified answer, but the syntactical surface form does not manifest some of the implicit presupposition derived from cultural differences in that they 'did not know the words 'church' and even 'Christmas', 'Santa Claus', and so forth. Example 60-b is also grammatically correct, but SL learners did not know exactly what a 'zebra' was like. These two examples may be those of presuppositional failure. It is doubtful whether these conversations are grammatically correct or pragmatically appropriate without any contextual or presuppositional explanation. Their answers entail the discourse level negation: "No, I do not go to church" and "No, I did not see a zebra." In other words, these negations can be explained in the propositions: "No, I don't understand your intention," or "No, I do't know the word 'church' or 'zebra'", or "I don't know the question." Examples 60-c, d, and e may be grammatically incorrect, but pragmatically possible. The previous interrogator, when she or he hears this statement, can infer the wide scope of negation to the request. In order to continue the topic, and to get further information, the interrogator can make another attempt to elicit new information. The syntheses of these aspects are outlined next.

ESL beginners' discourse negation occurs most often after *Yes-No* questions, and sometimes after alternative questions, or *WH*-questions. Keller-Cohen et al.(1979) point out that discourse negation occurs most often after *Yes-No* question, but what was observed in this study indicated that the discourse negation produced by ESL beginners occurred everywhere, such as after *WH*-question or alternative question. However, this study supports the suggestion that "the higher rate of discourse negation after yes-no questions may be due to their explicit request for an affirmation or negation"(Keller-Cohen et al., 1979, p. 300).

Example 61: (*Tape #22, 25, & 28, ESL*)

Stage II

a) R: *Do you have a car?*
C: *Yeah/*
b) R: *Do you speak English or Vietnamese at home?*
C: *No/*
R: *What? Vietnamese or English?*
C: *Vietnamese.*
c) R: *Does your father speak English or Vietnamese?*
B: *No/*
d) R: *What color is this?*
B: *No/*
e) R: *What color are your shoes?*
P: *No/*
f) R: *What time did you get up in the morning?*
P: (silent)
R: *Six o'clock. seven or eight?*
P: *No/*

In Example 61-a, what is the new information? The inference is that "C has a car, but he does not know its color," or "C does not have a car," or "C has a car, but he does not want to say any more," and "C is a linguistically underprevileged SL learner," or "C is a liar", and so forth.

In Example 61-b, c and d, B's and C's utterances are pragmatically uncooperative and an unhappy discourse negation. Linguistically immature SL learners' communicative alternatives frequently included such a negation as a means of informativeness: "I can not understand the interrogator's intention," or "I can not find out the appropriate answer or lexicon."

In Example 61-e, P's answer was substantively correct, whether it was grammatically correct or not. 'No' indicated that she had no shoes and was barefoot at that time. Her answer implied that "No, I don't have any shoes now, and I can not answer your question." Example 61-f showed that the mutual understanding and the understanding of the prior discourse were necessary and sufficient conditions for topic continuation.

The word 'no' was the most frequent form of negation in SL learners' utterances. The scope of negation of the speaker varied according to prior discourse, ongoing discourse, or the comprehensibility of the previous discourse. At the later stages, it can be inferred that the use of 'no' in the response to the alternative and *WH*-questions constituted the wide scope of negation. SL learners sometimes adopted the word 'no' in the context where they did not understand what the previous questions meant, or when they did not want to continue the topic any more. In this sense, simple negation did not necessarily indicate new information, and so the previous speaker might "probe for further information" (Keller-Cohen et al., 1979, p. 320).

Example 62: (*Tape #26, ESL*)

Stage III
a) R: *Are your sisters students?*
C: *No/*
R: *Are they studying in this school?*
C: *Yes/*
b) R: *When did you come to Canada?*
C: *No/*
c) R: *How many hours did you sleep?*
C: *No/*

- INTERNAL NEGATION -

Example 63: (*Tape #22, ESL*)
a) R: *Do you love your mother?*
B: *I don't know.*
b) R: *Do you know when your birthday is?*
B: *I am no.*
c) R: *Do you like the cat?*
P: * *No, no, I like the cat.*

It seemed that the developmental aspect of discourse negation showed the shift from the simple negation to elaborated discourse negation and from the wide scope of negation to the narrow scope of negation. At the third stage, ESL leaners began to use predicate negation, even though they earlier used the utterance "I don't know." One of the meanings of "I don't know" in the sentence 63-a and grammatically incorrect sentence 63-b "I am no" is the same as "I don't know what you mean." What was remarkable at this stage was the frequent omission of 'no' and the transitional aspect of negation - from the left to the right. On the other hand, the utterance 63-c showed that P did not use the negative "do not" or "don't." 'not.'

- ELABORATE ANSWER -

Example 64: *(Tape #29, ESL)*
a) R: *Do you have a TV?*
P: *Parlor.*
b) *What is this?*
P: ** No, I like.*
c) R: *Do you have an elephant?*
P: *? No, I like.*

In the response in the example 64-a, P showed her ego-centric utterance in the affirmative : "Yes, I have. My TV is in the parlor of my house," and "There is a TV in this classroom. That is not mine." Two conversations 64-b and 64-c occurred just after the practice of the pattern "do you like something?" These examples showed that form-oriented classroom discourses seem to be restricted in applicability to one form or another via transformational rules. The implications suggested from these conversations will be discussed further in Chapter IX.

There has been a great amount of research on the developmental aspects of negation based on linguistic approaches to the acquisition order of both English as a native language and ESL. Clark and Clark(1977) suggest that in the case of English speakers, children appear to go through at least three stages in the acquisition of the adult negation system as follows:

> To begin with, they combine a negative element, *no* or *not*, with other propositions by placing it at the beginning of the sentence. At the second stage, they begin to incoporate the negative into the sentence and

> use negative like *can't* and *don't* in addition to *not*. By the third stage, they appear to have mastered the essentials of the adult system for English.... (p. 351)

Cancino et al(1978) propose four stages in the ESL learners' acquisition of negatives as (1) NO + Verb (2) DON'T + Verb (3) Auxiliary + Negative (where aux is primarily *be/can*) and (4) Appearance of 'Analyzed' Forms of DON'T. Their study showed that the SL learners postulate that *no* is preposed to verb(e.g., 'I no can see'); their next stage shows that *don't* is simply used as an allomorph of *no* and still seems to be basically placed in pre-verbal position(e.g., 'He don't like it'); the third hypothesis is that English negative is formed by placing the negative element(*n't/not*) after the first auxiliary element (e.g., 'It wasn't so big'); the fi stage shows that no+V utterances disappear and analyzed forms of *don't*, *do not*, *doesn't*, *does not*, *didn't*, *did not* are used (e.g., 'I didn't even know'). Their findings are that SL learners' developmental process in learning negatives are similar to those of L1 English-speaking children.

Their findings have provided significant implications for negation development in linguistic terms. However, the examples of the simple negation 'no', even though SL learners used the word in an appropriate form, does not prove the acquisition of the negative 'no' as shown in Examples 55, 60, 61, and 62. In addition, the developmental aspects indicated that there were at least two prior stages in the acquisition of negation which Cancino et al suggested. The initial stage was the non-verbal negation as shown in Example 52, and the second stage was the use of 'multi-directional' or ambiguous use of 'no' which is termed intrinsic negation in this study. At this stage, the position of 'no' in the utterance was in the initial position of the utterance, and so the entailment and presupposition of the use of 'no' were very ambiguous for the adult or other children. Nevertheless, the function of 'no' is informative, expressive, and communicative. The narrowing-down scope of negation was manifested by the shift of the position of negation as topic to the position of comment, or from the left to the right, according to the range of negation. As far as negation development was concerned, syntactic correctness did not predict SL learners' acquisition order. Negations were sometimes used as communication strategies for topic avoidance, uncooperativeness, etcetera. In this sense, pragmatic understanding precedes syntactic understanding, and syntactic development can be predicted in terms of contextual use of the target language.

3. ACQUISITION OF NEGATION: KSL LEARNERS

Akmajian et al.(1984) and Clark & Clark(1977) indicate that S1 children tend to develop negation from using single negative words at the one-word stage to the initialization of negative words at the early multi-word stage. At the later multi-word stage, negative words occur between subject and predicate and between negative auxiliaries and a wider range of negative auxiliaries.

Korean has lexically or morphosyntactically different response systems from those of English. This difference can be found in the negative question-answer forms as follows:

Example 65:

Korean	English
a. Do you like an apple?	a'. Do you like an apple?
b. Yes, I do.	b'. Yes, I do.
c. Isn't it raining outside?	c'. Isn't it raining outside?
d. *No*, it is raining.	d'. *Yes*, it is raining.
e. *Yes*, it isn't raining.	e'. *No*, it isn't raining.

The utterances of (d) vs. (d') and (e) vs. (e') in Example 65 display the differences in the use of reaction initiators or 'reaction signals' (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973) such as ye or ne (*yes* in English) and anio or ani (*no* in English). This phenomenon shows that the Korean answer systems are mainly based on the question forms of the previous speaker, whereas English answer systems are based on the answerer's intention toward the ongoing response. Korean answer systems are likely to be functionally retrospective and sensitive to the agreement or disagreement of the whole propositional unit of the previous speaker's request or question. In other words, Korean answer systems are principally based on the reply to the fact which is included in the question.

In Korean language systems, affirmatives and negatives as responses are based on the interrogator's proposition and request and the answer is expected to be made on the basis of the proposition and content of the utterance and to be insensitive to the syntactical structure of the previous request or question. The link between the question and the response is syntactically retrospective to the fact and the agreement between the response signal 'yes' or 'no' and the subsequent syntactic structure is not necessary. On the other hand, in English, answer systems are based on the answerer's attitude or expectation of the ongoing discourse, and the initial response 'yes' or 'no' has the anticipatory function of the subsequent proposition. English answer systems presuppose the agreement of the response initial with the syntactic structure of the subsequent answer.

The acquisition of negatives in Korean is related to that of pragmatic understanding and syntactic understanding and use as well. Since the topic and content of the interviews with the KSL learners in this study were similar, their developmental aspects were distinctively found in the use of language in response to the question. When the interviewer asked the question: "saengil-i eonzezi?" (*When is your birthday'* in English), in the first interview, S2 answered in silence : "uhm..."; in the second interview, he answered, "Na hankook maal mos-hae. *No more* taneo-ya" (*'I* *can not speak Korean. I have no more word'* in English); in the third interview, he replied: "oh! nae taneo izeo-peolyeosseo-yo" (*'Oh, I have forgot it'* in English). KSL learners' negation development in this study can be described as (a) silence, (b) code switching, (c) simple negation using 'ye' or 'anio', (d) internal or predicate negation, and (e) elaborated negation.

The syntactic switching would be possible under the condition where the communicators know the two language systems. Otherwise, the switched words are factors of presuppositional misfire or misunderstanding of the new information. The following are among the examples according to the developmental stages in this study.

SIMPLE NEGATION

Example 66: (*Tape #54, 51, and 57, KSL*)

a) R: *zinanpeon sookze-nun tah haess-eo?*
HAVE YOU FINISHED YOUR HOMEWORK?
S2: *anio.*
NO.

b) R: *tah an haess-eo?*
DIDN'T YOU FINISH YOUR HOMEWORK?
S2: *ne.*
YES. 'no'

c) R: *violin-un mos-hana?*
DIDN'T YOU PLAY THE VIOLIN?
S1: *ne.*
YES. 'no'

d) R: *hankooke an kapwass-eo?*
HAVEN'T EVER BEEN TO KOREA?
S3: *ye.*
YES. 'no'

The use of ye or anio reflected the acquisition and developmental aspects of KSL, contradicting the English response systems. Ani and mos' are the basic forms of negatives, posited in front of the stem of predicates. These negatives are regarded as sentential negatives. KSL learners seemed to be slow to acquire the different uses of 'ani' and 'mos', because the differences are similar to the differences of auxiliary verbs in English, and include some restrictions in use. Firstly, not all the verbs and negatives can be inverted in contractional use. Principally, the verbs with '-*ha*' derivational rules and predicate adjectives do not adopt inversional contraction forms(Kim S. D. 1983).

NP -ha- derivational stem -chi anhta (or mos-hata)
* NP an (or mos) Verb
Ex: kuka kongpu anhta (or mos-hata).
= * kuka an (or mos) kongpu hata.
NP complement + anita
= * NP an complement +ta
Ex: salam-un kaltae-ka anita.
= * salam-un an kaltae-ta.

(Kim S. D., 1983, p. 235)

In the KSL classes and the interviews, and during the conversational interactions, KSL learners often used ill-formed negatives. *Ani* and *mos* are different in the presupposition, entailment of the discourse. In the past and perfect tenses, *ani* are frequently used in the negation of fact, volitional activities, and the speaker's intentional proposition, whereas *mos* is used in the negation of ability of agent, possibilities potential, and unvolitional proposition. In the future tense, *ani* is used in the negation of volitional, factive, existential, insistential proposition, whereas *mos* is used in the negation of permissive, ability, possibility, and unvolitional proposition.

SL learners' use of negatives were found erroneous in terms of syntactical position and functional or semantic constraintsas shown in Example 67.

INTERNAL NEGATION

Example 67: *(Tape #55, 52, and 58, KSL)*

a) R: *football seonsoo an dweko sipeo?*
DON'T YOU WANT TO BE A FOOTBALL PLAYER?
S2: ? *an hae-yo.*
I WILL NOT DO IT.

b) R: *saengil china kass-na an china kass-na?*
HAS YOUR BIRTHDAY PASSED OR NOT PASSED?
S1: *an china kasseo-yo.*
IT HAS NOT PASSED.

c) R: *pap an silheo hae?*
DON'T YOU HATE BOILED RICE?
S3: * *anio, an silheo hae-yo.*
NO, I DON'T HATE IT. 'yes, I don't hate it'

KSL learners, just like ESL learners, frequently omitted the response signal when they used predicate negation or internal negation. In addition, they seemed to find difficulty in the alternative use of ani or mos. They did not know the restrictive use of mos or ani. It seemed that S3 did not acquire the use of the response signal even at the third stage, which indicated the personal differences in SLA.

ELABORATE NEGATION

Example 68: *(Tape #56 and 53, KSL)*
a) R: *hyeong-un neo an sikhiko zakika tah hantanunte?*
YOUR ELDER BROTHER SAID THAT HE HIMSELF DID IT INSTEAD OF ASKING YOU TO DO.
S2: *hyeon(g)-un keozis-mal zaengi-ya.*
MY ELDER BROTHER IS A LIAR!
b) R: *yes-nal yeki saengkak nanunkeo issna?*
DO YOU HAPPEN TO REMEMBER AN OLD STORY?
S1: *alassnunte tah izeo-ppeolyesseo-yo.*
I KNEW SOME, BUT I HAVE FORGOTTEN THEM ALL.
c) R: *zaemi eopseo?*
IS-NOT IT FUN?
S1: *ne, zaemi eopseo-yo.*
YES, IT IS-NOT FUN.
d) R: *hyeong issna?*
DO YOU HAVE ANY BROTHER?
S1: *eopseo-yo.*
I HAVE-NOT.

In Example 68-a, S2 used an elaborated negation. The statement that "my elder brother is a liar" suggests that his statement is false, and "my elder brother often asked me to help him," and "I will give you other evidence that he is a liar, and my statement is the truth." In Example 68-b, S1 did not use negatives 'ani' or 'mos.' However, his statement included the proposition that 'I knew some stories, and it is true,' or 'I heard some old stories from others, and it is true,' and/or 'I don't know any old stories now,' 'Some clues can remind me of an old story, and it is possible,' 'I can not recall it right now,' and so 'No, I can not remember an old story.' Examples of 68-c and 68-d are another kind of elaborated negation. Clark and Clark(1977) dichotomize negation, saying:

> Negation is probably expressed in a complex way because it takes more specification to say what something is *not*

> than to say what something is.... Positive and negative serve to divide domains like color into two parts, such as red and not red. Many domains divide in half naturally, and then it seems arbitrary to call one half positive and the other negative... (p. 538).

In Korean question-answer typology, the use of polarized lexicon is often found in daily conversations. The relationship between issta and eopta is not that of positive and negative, but that of polarity. The word eopta does not belong to the negation category.

Another aspect which seemed to emerge in KSL learners was the use of the rhetorical question conveying the negative intentions and attitudes of the speaker. The use of rhetorical question as a negation has emphatic function and may be acquired in the later stage or in adult language. Quirk and Greenbaum(1973) state that "the rhetorical question is one which functions as a forceful statement. More precisely, a *positive* rhetorical question is like a strong negative assertion, while a *negative* rhetorical question is like a strong positive one"(p. 200). This rhetorical question has the normal tonal contour of a yes-no or WH-question, but it seems that some constituents which can be replaced by a negative or positive element usually receive emphatic stress.

In this study, KSL learners at the first stage usually used code-switching strategies in the negative utterance which was applied by the English question-answer structures.

However, at the second and third stages, the KSL learners frequently used appropriate negation according to questions, even though they made a few mistakes, and code-switching. In the meantime, they were slow to acquire the use of an, mos, zal an, and zal mos, which correspond to auxiliaries or scope of negation in English. It seems that the use of code-switching was a strategic device based on the presupposition of mutual understanding, and cooperative speech act in making an immediate answer to the question with little information about the linguistic systems of the target language. The avoidance of the use of code-switching seemed to be due to the situational understanding of SL learners and the interviewer's intention in that context. What was noticeable in code-switching was that SL learners usually adopted responding signals which correspond to their native language system, not to the target language system.

Negation development seemed to be conncected to syntactic and pragmatic understanding. Developmental aspects of KSL learners support the suggestion that there will be two prior stages of nonverbal negation and ambiguous use of negation such as code-switching no and irregular use of ye or anio, just as in the case of ESL learners. It is likely that there is also a continuity between explanations of syntactic and phonological development in the process of SLA. The next chapter will be concerned with SL learners' phonological development.

NOTE

1. Levinson(1983) suggests scope-ambiguities and insists on the necessity of distinction between narrow-scope and wide-scope negation in order to minimize such ambiguities.

2. Park(1983) proposes two basic forms of negatives: the first is 'ani' and 'mos' and the second is constituent negatives borrowed from Chinese, for example, pi, pul, moo, etc.

Chapter VII

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: PHONOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

Speech acts normally occur in verbal, conversational interaction with meaning and context. Subject matter, communicators, the mode of discourse, and the formality of the occasion usually influence styles or registers. This chapter deals with the question: 'How do second language learners modify language input?' Correct perception and production should be accompanied by the acquisition of register of language. As Brown(1980) states, "register distinctions in pronunciation are likely to be most noticeable"(p. 192) in the phonological components of discourse. Even though phonological units have been neglected in the study of discourse analysis to date, phonological matters are significant "for an understanding of discourse organization" (Brazil, 1985, p. 57), and v 850interlanguage development through conversations is connected to phonological adjustment and input modification in the process of SLA.

The results of this data analysis reflected two levels of phonology; there was a segmental or phoneme level and a suprasegmental level of phonology. The first section focuses on the strategies for acquiring SL phonology and the modification of prosody in the classroom. The second section discusses some issues in the results such as strategies, prosodic modification, and misunderstanding in speech acts.

A. FINDINGS

Since the data analysis of this study was based on the SL learners' acquisition of SL phonology, but not on the comparison of interlanguage differences, the focus was on the ontogenetic and sociogenetic aspects. The results of the data analysis showed that the process of phonological modification was related to both split and merger strategies. Prosodic modification was also observed. This chapter was concerned with these aspects and was based on the assumption that SL beginners' errors were an inevitable part of developmental process. Since linguistic environments were included in the notion of context for this study, phonological cues appeared as one of factors for SLA. It was also found that SL learners' phonological development was likely to proceed in proportion to that of their perceiving and producing a more complicated phonological system. The deviant production data of this study were obtained from the lesson events and the interviews.

1. DIVERSIFICATION - SPLIT STRATEGY

In our conversations, pronunciation of words, consonant and vowel articulation, vowel quality, and tonal qualities are reflected in the hearer's reaction and speaker-hearer interaction. SL learners are likely to be exposed to phonological and phonetical idiosyncratic use of the target language. Much of their linguistic input is obtained through their interactions with teachers, and other native speakers. During their interactions with native speakers, SL learners establish their own hypotheses about the phonological boundaries of the target language.

Beginning SL learners seem to split their hypotheses about input materials into various categories reflecting their own perception. This process is similar to that of a top-down strategy. The observations and recordings from this study suggested that the diversification and the irregularity of SL learners' production can be attributed to their application of split strategies. The deviant productions obtained from tape-recordings and transcriptions were analyzed and classified according to the SL learners' developmental stages and phonemic units. Tables 12-1 and 12-2 are part of the results of the data analysis of ESL learners, and Table 12-3 and 12-4 are that of KSL learners. More detailed materials concerning both ESL and KSL students' deviant pronunciations are shown in Appendices C-1, C-2, C-3, and C-4.

Table 12-1. Consonant errors of ESL students

	ESL STUDENTS								
	B			C			P		
P-> E	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III
s-> θ					*				
s-> t		*							
s-> tr		*							
s-> S	*	*		*	*				
s-> Ø	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
r-> l			*	*	*	*	*		
r-> s				*					
r-> n				*			*		
r-> o	*				*				
r-> (r)w	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
r-> Ø	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*

Note. In this section and Appendices, the numbers of I, II, and III are referred to as the stage; the star marks (*) indicate the deviant pronunciation. P: Phoneme; E: Erroneous pronunciation

Table 12-2. Vowel errors of ESL students

	ESL STUDENTS								
	B			C			P		
P -> E	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III
u -> ou		*			*		*	*	*
Ø -> a	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	
Ø -> o	*			*		*	*		
w -> p							*		
w -> Ø	*			*	*	*	*		
Ø -> w								*	
y -> Ø	*			*	*	*			
Ø -> y							*		

Tables 12-1 and 12-2 show some examples of diversified pronunciation of consonants and vowels by ESL learners. Table 12-1 reveals that /s/ was split in five deviant manners and /r/ in six deviant manners. Subjects' diversified pronunciations are unpredictable, but common aspects were deletions of /s/ and /r/. Also /r/ was modified into semi-vowel /w/. Table 12-2 demonstrates that in the vowel production of all three children at the first stage, the directions of split were also diversified and unpredictable from person to person.

The phonological diversification was found in the pronunciation of KSL learners, as shown Tables 12-3 and 12-4 below. In the Korean phonological system, /r/ is hypothesized as an allophone of /1/(Cheun, 1980), which is different from English phonological systems. Table 13-2 illustrates /l/-sound instead of /r/.

Table 12-3. Consonant errors of KSL students

	KSL STUDENTS									
	S1			S2			S3			Oth
P -> E	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III	
s -> n				*	*		*		*	
s -> g									*	
s -> z				*						
s -> Ø			*		*		*	*		*
l -> g		*								
l -> m							*			
l -> s		*	*							
l -> Ø	*		*		*	*	*	*	*	

Table 12-4. Vowel errors of KSL students

	KSL STUDENTS									
	S1			S2			S3			Oth
P -> E	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III	
Ø -> a						*			*	
Ø -> o									*	
Ø -> I			*			*	*		*	
Ø -> i			*							
w -> y		*								
w -> Ø					*				*	*
y -> Ø	*		*	*	*	*			*	*
Ø -> y			*	*	*			*	*	

Table 12-3 shows that KSL learners tended to exploit more diversified strategies at earlier stages than at later stages. Table 12-4 indicates that common aspects of KSL learners were deletions of /s/ and /l/, but these contexts could not be predicted by any means KSL learners, like ESL beginners, tended to use split strategies for acquiring the phonological properties and features.

As shown by these data, at the primitive stage the SL learners appeared to produce more diversified deviant patterns than they did at later stages, and that the process of producing these phonological attributed for both ESL and KSL learners involved split strategies, which demonstrated individual differences.

2. SIMPLIFICATION - MERGER STRATEGY

Merger strategy means that SL beginners tend to perceive and utter phones largely at the three points of articulation (front, middle, and back) without further subcategorization. Merger strategy was a main factor of simplification, whereas split strategy was one of complexification. In this sense, merger strategy included standardization functions. Merger strategy, which was observed in consonants and semi-vowels, is manifested in *fronting, stopping, reduction, fortis or hardening, weakening, gliding, lateralization, and insertion.*

(A) Fronting

Fronting could be explained as 'anteriorization' and/or 'coronalization'. The sounds with [-anterior] and/or [-coronal] feature were likely to be merged into [+anterior] and/or [+coronal]. This aspect was the shift of the point of articulation from middle or back part to front. This seemed to be a process of regularization of phonological productions. In this chapter, the words in the first column are described by means of alphabetical system, the symbols in the second column are deviant pronunciations of ESL and KSL learners. The letters in the third column indicate learners' stages in the case of ESL learners.

Example 69: ESL

1 /tiger/	- [taiza]	I
2 /fine/	- [pain]	I
3 /have/	- [heb]	II

Example 70: KSL

1 /kaŋazi/	-	[zaŋazi]	'puppy'
2 /kyul/	-	[zyul]	'orange'
3 /mulkoki/	-	[mulkoli]	'fish'
4 /taekɨk-ki/	-	[taelɨk-ki]	'Korean flag'
5 /koŋpu/	-	[kompu]	'study'

Examples 69-1, 2, and 3 indicate that /g/, /f/, and /v/ sounds were merged into more fronted part /z/, /p/, and /b/ respectively. Examples 70-1, 2, 3, and 4 reveal that /k/ sounds were merged to /z/ and /l/, while in Example 70-5, /ŋ/ to /m/.

(B) Stopping

The children tended to merge some dental sounds into stops. Phones including the same feature of anterior and coronal were likely to merge into stops without losing the feature.

Example 71: ESL

/thank/	-	[daeŋk]	I
/bicycle/	-	[baitsykl]	II
/father/	-	[fatdɚ]	II
/mother/	-	[madɚ]	II
/English/	-	[iŋglik]	III
/big/	-	[bikg]	I, II, III

Example 72: KSL

/tsaeksaŋ/	-	[t'aeksaŋ]	'desk'
/gas'əyo/	-	[gat'əyo]	'went'
/zazənkə/	-	[zatənkə]	'bike'
/tuli-ta/	-	[tuti-ta]	'two both'
/holaŋi/	-	[hotaŋi]	'tiger'
/tali/	-	[tati]	'leg'
/uli/	-	[uti]	'we'
/yuli/	-	[yuti]	'glass'
/kɨlim/	-	[kɨtim]	'picture'
/kɨlɨt/	-	[kɨtɨt]	'bowl'
/nolan/	-	[notan]	'yellow'

Example 71 shows that stopping occurred in the sounds 'th', 'sh', and 'g'. The children produced most of the deviant stops of /s/, /z/, /ts/-series as stopping [t] or [t'], as shown in Example 72. Example 72 also presented stopping characteristics of 'l' sounds. Both ESL and KSL beginners tended to produce most of the deviant liquids as stops [t] or [t'], irrespective of their age or sex. As far as the process of production was concerned, these aspects could be viewed as the manipulation of merger strategies.

(C) Consonant Reduction

Few Korean words have three or more consonant clusters, while English has a number of consonant clusters. The children learning ESL and KSL tended to reduce consonant clusters, whether perceived or not, through merger in a conflation or vowel epenthesis. One of the two consonants was likely to be reduced or substituted for other consonants in younger children's speech.

1. Cluster reduction: One or more components of consonant clusters were sometimes omitted either in a passive or in an active turn-taking situation.

Example 73: ESL

/green/	- [g(w)i:n]	II
/sister/	- [sitər]	II
/Christmas/	- [krima]	II
/Wednesday/	- [wezdey-wendey]	III

Example 74: KSL

/kɨkəs-hako/	- [kɨkəhako]	'it and'
/yətəlsi/	- [yətəsi]	'eight o'clock'
/kɨkəs-man/	- [kɨkəman]	'only it'

Both Examples 73 and 74 show that consonant clusters were frequently reduced irrespective of linguistic contexts.

2. Consonant omission (Non-final): One consonant of a word is sometimes omitted.

Example 75: ESL

/TV/	-	[ti:(w)i:]	I
/kangaroo/	-	[kaŋgau]	I, II
/balloon/	-	[ba:n]	I

Example 76: KSL

/pis-ɨl/	-	[pi-ɨl]	'comb'(Obj.)
/halapəzi/	-	[haapəzi]	'grandfather'
/nol-leo/	-	[no-la]	'play'
/mulɨp/	-	[muɨp]	'knee'
/sesiyo/	-	[seyo]	'is three'

Example 75 shows that ESL learners frequently omitted /r/-sounds across the stages. Example 76 indicates that KSL learners also tended to omit /l/-sound and /s/-sound in a word.

3. Semi-vowel reduction: Both ESL and KSL learners frequently omitted or reduced semi-vowels such as /w/ and /y/. This reduction usually occurred at the primitive stage.

Example 77: ESL

/one/	-	[on]	I
/know/	-	[no]	I
/snake/	-	[snæk]	I

Example 78: KSL

/kwaza/	-	[kaza]	'candy'
/kwi/*or*/kü/	-	[ki]	'ear'
/pwas'ə/	-	[pos'ə]	'saw'
/sakwa/	-	[saka]	'apple'
/ɨyza/	-	[iza]	'chair'
/ɨysa/	-	[isa]	'doctor'

As shown in Examples 77 and 78, semi-vowel reduction could be characterized as one aspect of child talk or foreigner talk. This reduction occurred as simplicity of double vowels by means of merger strategies.

4. Final consonant omission: The nature of production economy was represented by the omission of consonants, whether their position was initial, mid, or final. Final omission affected the shape of syllables and words, even though the preceding vowel was a 'marked' segment.

Example 79: ESL

/Vietnamese/	-	[vitnamiː]	I, II
/cartoon/	-	[kartuː]	I
/fox/	-	[fo - pok]	I
/mouth/	-	[mau]	II
/orange/	-	[oran]	II, III
/box/	-	[bok]	II
/eight/	-	[ei]	II, III
/Chinese/	-	[chaini(ː)]	II
/twelve/	-	[twel]	II, III
/six/	-	[sik]	III
/after/	-	[afta]	III

Example 80: KSL

/zəkəs/	-	[zəkə]	'that thing'
/kɨkəs/	-	[kɨkə]	'it'
/t'aŋkʰoŋ/	-	[t'aŋkʰo]	'peanut'
/yənpʰil/	-	[yənp'i]	'pencil'

One of characteristics of child talk was found in lisping. Speaking with a lisp may be a factor of final consonant omission; beginner talk with final omission was caused by lack of confidence or by unawareness of the intended production, or by the articulatory difficulty of producing a closed syllable, among other factors. It seemed that final consonants were most frequently omitted.

(D) Fortis or Hardening

SL beginners at the primitive stage did not commonly use this strategy, while children at the second and third stages of L2 acquisition tended to harden some consonants in order to put on an accent, or an emphasis, and to clarify their intentions.

Example 81: ESL
1 /big/ - [bikg] I, II
2 /egg/ - [ekg~ikg] III
3 /dog/ - [dokg] III
4 /tub/ - [tʌpb] II
5 /ef/ - [epf] II, III
6 /beef/ - [bi:fp] III
7 /five/ - [Pfive] II, III
8 /rabbit/ - [lrabit] III
9 /brown/ - [blaun] II
10 /star/ - [shtar] II

Example 82: KSL
1 /zogɨm/ - [z'oggɨm] 'a little'(I III)
2 /zoŋi/ - [z'oŋi] 'paper'(II,III)
3 /ak-ə/ - [ak-kə] 'crocodile'(III)
4 /tʰok'i/ - [tʰokʰi] 'rabbit'(III)
5 /yəsət/ - [yəs'ət] 'six'(II)
6 /izəpəlyə/ - [izəp'əlyə] 'forgot'(III)

Example 81-1, 2, 3 illustrates the hardening of /g/ and in Example 81-4 that of /b/. Hardening could be explained by the addition of voiceless sounds to the voiced sounds as seen in Example 81-5 through 81-10. KSL students also hardened some voiced sounds by means of double consonants. Example 82-1 and 2 show that /z/ was hardened and changed to /zz/-sound. Other examples such as 82-3 through 82-6 indicate fortis characteristics uttered by KSL learners. Fortis seemed to be related to the clarification of communicative intentions of the speaker.

(E) Weakening

ESL and KSL students sometimes weakened some consonants. Weakening included stop voicing, nasalization, and palatalization.

Example 83: ESL

/pig/	-	[big]	III
/butterfly/	-	[bʌdərflay]	I, II, III
/apple/	-	[æfl - æbl]	III

Example 84: KSL

/ap^{h}ɨl/	-	[ap'ɨl]	'sick'(I)
/p^{h}al/	-	[pal]	'arm'
/k^{h}al/	-	[k'al]	'knife'(II)
/p'uniya/	-	[puniya]	'only'
/mot-h*ae*/	-	[monh*ae*]	'cannot'
/s'al/	-	[sal]	'rice'

It seemed that weakening sometimes occurred when SL learners were forced to respond to their teacher's questions passively. Unclear voice and hesitation frequently induced weakening.

(F) Gliding

The /l/-/y/ change is widely verified in the developmental literature. This change could be thought of as dissimilation. The data from this study showed that gliding was likely to appear at the earlier stage.

Example 85: ESL

/green/	-	[gwi:n]	I, II
/tree/	-	[twi:]	II III
/kangaroo/	-	[kaŋgawu]	I, II
/bear/	-	[b*ɛ*o]	I

Example 86: KSL

/kɨlim/	-	[kɨyim]	'picture'
/s*ae*/	-	[sey]	'bird'
/talamzwi/	-	[tayamzwi]	'squirrel'

Gliding seemed to be connected to consonant reductions. ESL students' unclear sounds of consonants were sometimes accompanied by gliding.

(G) Lateralization

The data showed that some consonants between vowels were merged into liquids.

Example 87: KSL

/zazənkə/	-	[zalənkə]	'bike'
/yətəl/	-	[yələl]	'eight'
/nonɨnkə/	-	[nolɨnkə]	'to play'

Example 87 shows that /z/, /t/, and /n/-sounds merged into an /l/ sound. SL learners seemed to perceive language input through inference and understanding at the same time, while "output could be thought of as the production of what the hearer has heard and understood in the context of conversation and discourse"(Pae, 1985).

3. MODIFICATION OF PROSODIC CONTOUR

During the instructional discourse, SL learners' modification of prosodic contour took place once in a while. Oral practice was frequently performed as part of passive turn-taking system. Prosodic contour was modified in the direction of prosodic monotony, unnatural falling or rising intonation. It was also found that rising intonation occurred in relation to the speaker's attitide toward new or old information. In addition, these SL learners were found employing strategies for eliciting lexicons and syntactic or phonetic elements by looking for some cues from the previous speaker's phonological contexts.

(A) Prosodic Monotony

When SL learners made a morpheme-oriented imitation of a word in chorus reading, some unnatural, even if distinct and phonemically correct, sound and sound-patterns were sometimes uttered. Some utterances produced by SL learners in the reading practices showed irregularities and unnaturalness of intonation or stress. Some characteristics found in spoken prosody during their oral practices and oral reading in the classroom were:

1. unnatural slowness of speech speed
2. monotonous tone
3. exaggerated pitch and stress
4. unnatural pauses in the sentence caused by discontnuity of contextual meaning
5. reading morpheme by morpheme
6. reading letter by letter: understanding language in sign system, not in use

Even when the SL learners took turns using active turn-getting strategies, they usually read the written materials in almost the same way as during the chorus reading practice. It seemed that they differentiated oral practice from the natural speaking context. When SL learners read their written materials or performed a play based on the written materials, they frequently disregarded the natural flow of speech in their utterances.

(B) Irregularity of Intonation

Another characteristic of the classroom discourse was modified tonal quality and irregular application of intonation. Example 88 shows KSL learners' deviant falling and rising intonations. These characteristics seem unique to the formal lesson, since they were seldom found in natural conversations.

Example 88: *(Tape #32, KSL)*
1 S3: ** *na-nun sookze-an zoha-yo/* (rising)

I DON'T LIKE HOMEWORK.
('Literally, I like inside of homework')
2 S2: ** *nanun hwazangsil kato twe-yo*(falling)

CAN I GO TO A WASHROOM?
('Literally, I can go to a washroom')
3 S3: ** *na-nun chaek-ul ilheo peoryeosseo-yo/* (rising)

chaek chazasseo-yo/ (falling)

I LOST A BOOK. FOUND THE BOOK.

Example 88-1 shows a deviant rising intonation in a statement and an unnatural pause in reading a composition. The child should have taken a pause between sookze (*homework* in English) and an (*not* in English). Example 88-2 exhibits a deviant falling intonation in an interrogative sentence. The SL learner's attitudes toward the information usually resulted in the modification of tonal contour, and an unconvincing attitude usually resutled in a falling intonation as shown in Example 89.

Example 89: (*Tape #38, KSL*)
1 S3: ** *meokeoto twe-yo/* (falling)

MAY I EAT IT? 'Literally, I may eat it'
2 S1: ** *apeozi manhwa-lul ilkeo-to zoha-yo/* (falling)

DAD, CAN I READ A CARTOON?
'Literally, I (or you) can read Father('s) cartoon'

On the contrary, the SL learner's negative attitude toward information, and her or his unclear stored knowledge sometimes produced rising intonation at the end of the utterance for declaratives. This finding showed another modification of prosodic contour according to the speaker's attitude in the passive turn-taking order.

Example 90: (*Tape #33, KSL*)
1 T: *apeozi-ui eomeoni-nun nookoo-jo?/*
WHO IS A FATHER'S MOTHER?
2 Sa: *we-hala(peo)zi?* (rising)

A MATERNAL GRANDFATHER
3 T: *we-halapeozi?/ ZZOkum saeng-kak haepwa-yo/ APEOZI-ui eomeoni/*
A MATERNAL GRANDFATHER? THINK OF IT A LITTLE MORE. A FATHER'S MOTHER
5 Sa: *halmeoni?* (rising)

A GRANDMOTHER

The modification of prosodic contour was unlikely to be affected by the speaker's attitude toward the communicators, but by the attitude toward the information and by the turn-getting motivation.

4. PHONOLOGICAL CUES AND MISUNDERSTANDING

It was found that phonological cues were applied in two ways. One was a positive way to elicit correct answers to the teacher's questions, and the other was a source of misunderstanding. In the lesson discourse, SL teachers applied a variety of techniques to elicit new and given information in relation to syntactic, semantic, and phonological systems. Such techniques were seen and observed during evaluation and review. When the teachers presented old information, they frequently used linguistic cues from the previous speaker's utterances. In their language game, they frequently tried to find some cues for the response from phonologically salient parts or segments and from the phonological context of the previous discourse or utterance.

Example 91: *(Tape #34, KSL)*
1 T: *ku taum 'tt' tuleo kanun keo mweo it-na?/*
NEXT, WHAT WORDS INCLUDE /tt/-SOUNDS?
2 S2: *ttukeo-woon/*
HOT.
3 T: *ttukeo-woon, azu za(:)l hass-eoyo/ TTU(::) KEO(::) woon/* (writing the letter)
HOT, SUPER! H-O-T.
5 *tto mweo iss-ulka?/ tt-tuleo kanunkeo/*(3) [Sm raises her hand] xxx(Sm)/
ANTHING ELSE? WITH A /tt/-SOUND? xxx.
7 Sm: *ttu-ttus hae-yo/*
WARM.

S2 took a turn actively just before the turn-allocation and made a response relevant to the teacher's question. Then Sm took a turn passively and, to avoid a long gap between turns, exploited a cue from the initial context of the previous utterance.

Example 92 from an ESL classroom conversation shows how SL learners used their contextualization cues in the classroom setting.

Example 92: *(Tape #1)*
1 T: *B has a fox/ C has a fox/ and P does not have a fox/*
2 *It's under the O, fox/* ((WH)) *C, how do you spell fox?/ What are the letters?/*
4 C: *F/O/X/* [slowly]
5 T: *C, good/* [looking at B] *B, how do you spell fox?/*
6 B: [faster than C] *F/O/X/*[ef, ou, eks]
7 T: *P, how do you spell fox?/(3) You can look over here/*[showing her some cards]
9 P: *S/O/*((WH)) [es, ou]

We see here that P might have gotten the cue of the answer from the situation and that the most salient segment of the word seemed to her to be 's'-sound. In addition, the turn order had been modified from B->C->P to C->B->P just when she was given a turn by the teacher. P, who could not distinguish between /eks/ and /ef/, uttered /es/ first. It seems that /e(k)s/ was the last sound P heard and it was most salient to her. Unvolitional speech acts induced reversed ordering of pronunciation.

Misapplication or modified comprehension of linguistic input sometimes led to misunderstanding during conversation. Unrecoverable elements of heard language were usually inferred by the hearer's old information or egocentric interpretation. It seems that the limited range of SL beginners' vocabulary sometimes causes them to be extremely selective in listening to a message. Misunderstanding tends to occur in the differences between a speaker's and a hearer's inferences and linguistic capabilities to understand and produce utterances, as shown in Example 93.

Example 93: (*Tape #21, ESL*)
1 R: *How do you feel today?/ What is your feeling today?/*
3 B: *Seventeen/*
4 R: *Do you know your birthday?/*
5 B: *Yeah/*
6 R: *When?/*
7 B: *Friday/*

Here we see that B did not know the meaning of the words 'feel' and 'birthday'. He inferred R's intention as to the question of the 'date' and then produced his response. On line (3), B's response 'seventeen' implies an answer to the question 'What is the date?'. He knew the word 'today' and it seems that his presupposition was based on the limited range of vocabulary. B's utterance on line (7) indicates that he confused the word 'birthday' with the word 'weekday'. In addition, this interview did not give him any feedback. B might have been unaware of the deviant reply on line (3), yet he perceived that his reply and interpretation were appropriate in the context. In this conversation, B was supposed to have merged the word 'birthday' into the concept of 'today' or to have understood the sentence meaning as a chunk.

During class lessons conversations between the teacher and KSL students sometimes produced some misunderstanding.

Example 94: (*Tape #35, KSL*)

1 Sm: *kyul-un tala-yo/*
AN ORANGE IS SWEET.
2 T: *kyul-un tala-yo/ kureonte ileon kyul-un talziman* (1) *tto* grape fruit-*nun eotte-yo, mas-i/*
AN ORANGE IS SWEET. HOWEVER, ALTHOUGH THIS KIND OF ORANGE IS SWEET, HOW ABOUT GRAPE FRUIT - ITS TASTE?
5 Ss: sour/
6 T: sour-*hanke mweonka?/*
WHAT IS "SOUR"?
7 Sb: lemon/
8 S1: *sita/*
SOUR.
9 T: *sita/ kulae-yo, sita-ko/*
SOUR. RIGHT, IT IS SOUR.

Example 94 is the interpretation of the question "what is sour?" The teacher's presupposition or expected intention was "what is the word 'sour' in Korean?" However, this question has an amibiguity in the meaning of the utterance. Mweonka was used in the question form in this context, (1) "what is something sour?" in the sense of "can you tell me another sour item?" (2) what do you call 'sour' in Korean? and (3) "can you explain the word 'sour' or pharaphrase it in Korean or in English?" This controversial context induced two different responses, each in an active turn-taking situation. S1 successfully elicited the answer and satisfied the teacher's communicative intention on the grounds of the second interpretation.

5. EMERGENCE OF CONFIRMATION CHECK

Confirmation check as a conversational strategy was found across the developmental stages. At the first and second stages, SL learners concentrated on segmental pronunciation, deciphering letters, and avoidance when they could not understand the speaker's utterance. Therefore, they usually exhibited a long silence and a long gap between turns. At the first and second stages, KSL learners often used a confirmation check when they were speaking with little conviction about the old and new information.

Data in this study did not provide evidence that C and P used confirmation checks in conversations in the classroom nor in the interview at any of three stages, whereas B employed such a strategy at the third stage.

Example 95: *(Tape #23, ESL)*

1 R:		*Do you know what is this?/*[pointing to a picture of 'monster']
2 B:	*No/*	
3 R:		*Mrs. V taught you this one, monster/*
4 B:	*Monster?/*	
5 R:		*Yeah/*

Confirmation check was realized in the form of interrogatives, but they functioned as tag-questions. These aspects were found both in classroom conversation and in the interviewing speech acts. On line (4) of Example 95, B initiated the conversation and asked "Did you say monster?" or "Mrs. V taught us the word 'monster', didn't she?" The following are three examples from the interviews with KSL students.

Example 96: (*Tape #57, KSL*)

Step I
1 R: *halmeoni an poko sipheo?/*
DON'T YOU WANT TO SEE YOUR GRANDMOTHER?
2 S3: *halmeoni?/*
GRANDMOTHER?
3 R: *ung/*
YEAH.
4 S3: *poko sipheo/*
I WANT TO SEE HER.

Example 97: (*Tape #55*)

Step II
1 R: *zinanpeon-e myeos-zeom patasseo?/*
WHAT MARKS DID YOU GET IN THE PREVIOUS EXAM?
2 S2: Exam?/
3 R: *ung/*
YEAH.
4 S2: Seventy six percent *patass-eoyo/*
I GOT SEVENTY SIX PERCENT.

Example 98: (*Tape #53, KSL*)

Step III
1 R: *naeil haeya-twel il-un?/*
WHAT WILL YOU HAVE TO TOMORROW?
2 S1: *seongtang kaya-twe/*
I HAVE TO GO TO MESS.
3 R: *tto?/*
AND?
4 S1: *TTO?/(3) kukeoman/*
AND? THAT'S ALL.

Several confirmation checks were observed during the first interviews with beginning KSL learners, even though they could not fully understand what the researcher intended. In the second and third interviews, the KSL students exploited confirmation checks when they did not understand the speaker's intention clearly. It was also found that the frequency of confirmation checks gradually increased, according to the topics and the speaker's speech speed or clarity of voice.

B. DISCUSSION

Contrastive Analyses and Error Analyses hypotheses tend to interpret SL learners' erroneous comprehension and production in terms of the differences in the two language systems and interference of L1. However, SLA processes can be viewed as an internal, cognitive interaction of self and language, and an interpersonal interaction with others. Strategic thinking is a phase of SL learners' interaction. Language input is modified during input according to the context, with context being the language learning environment. Ochs(1979a) illustrates the context-sensitive feature of language universality as the constrained choice of phonological variant, prosodic patterns, and the social roles of communicators.'

In comprehending and producing an utterance, to some extent we depend upon the sounds conveying semantic information via pragmatic understanding by means of syntactic organization. To understand a SL, and to produce it, it is necessary to use all levels in the discourse plans during conversational interaction. "The phonological level and the suprasegmental system play important parts in both comprehension and production, especially when one is learning a second language"(Hatch 1983, p. 39).

1. PHONOLOGICAL UNDERSTANDING AND PRODUCTION

SL learners are assumed to pass through phonetic and phonological stages. The acquisition of the phonological systems of the target language does not correspond to learning phonetic features or how to pronounce the word or words. Subjects of this study had already acquired the phonological systems of their native language. At the first stage of successful conversational interaction, their urgent problem was how to understand and produce the target language fluently.

Clark and Clark(1977) hypothesize two views of phonological acquisition: "one is that the phonological stage comes after the phonetic stage, and the other is that the phonetic and phonological stages work simultaneously to form the contents of a single memory, a short-term memory"(p. 205). However, the mapping of linguistic or phonological cues onto phonetic segments varies from speaker to speaker, and according to the speaker's emotional or situational context. School age SL learners are different from L1 children who are at one utterance stage in their degree of maturity, and those SL learners already know their native language strategies, and they are not so restricted in their memory as L1 children at one utterance stage.

The intended phonetic segments and their mapping order from the input cues are indirectly identified, and the use of phonetic and phonological cues in the perceptual and production processes vary according to a single stretch of speech and the contextual distribution and the presence of other cues (Clark & Clark, 1977). During the acquisition of SL, SL learners become perceptually sensitive to acoustic properties of that language so that new phonetic and phonemic distinctions are more salient than old ones. Williams(1980) points out that "there is also a tendency among the young second-language learners for voiced and voiceless tokens *produced* in English and Spanish to drift toward values appropriate to English as a function of exposure to English"(p. 210). Some phonetic and phonological features of the individual language may differ in its properties and values.

Through the study of the phonological development of word-initial consonants and consonant clusters, all the pressures from the SL learner's surrounding linguistic environment could force her or his "pattern of *perceiving* speech to reflect the environmentally dominant language"(Williams, 1980, p. 209). It seems that SL learners' linguistic environments might affect their pattern of perceiving speech. The socio-culturally dominant language and its pressure tend to influence SL learners' perceptions of the target language. For example, in the English language systems, /p/-/pp/-/ph/, /k/-/kk/-/kh/ are considered as allophones of /p/ and /k/, whereas in Korean, each of them constitutes individual phoneme. KSL learners frequently overlooked or neglected the distinctive features of those sounds, they frequently failed to identify the point of articulation and the manner of articulation.

Jakobson(1968) proposed that a young L1 child would produce consonants as forward articulated stops and vowels as wide ones. The order of consonantal distinction is the nasal/oral and labials and dentals. Fricatives are acquired after the corresponding stops, back consonants after front ones and affricates after fricatives. Sato(1985) concluded in her longitudinal study of a Vietnamese child on task variation in interlanguage phonology that

> "task variability has been seen to depend partly upon the particular linguistic variable examined: different developmental patterns were identified for English word-final consonants as opposed to word-final consonant clusters. In this case, systematic task variation was demonstrated for word-final clusters but not for word-final single consonants in the English interlanguage of a Vietnamese learner"(p. 195).

These L1 and SL studies on phonological development and their implications correspond to the results of this study in the process and strategies for the language acquisition. In order to explain developmental processes of phonological understanding, this study suggested both split and merger strategies. Thus, it is necessary to discuss these two strategies in detail.

2. STRATEGIES

It was assumed that SL learners gradually improved and developed their accurate discrimination of phonological contrast by virtue of split and merger strategies. Since SL beginners frequently uttered sounds which they had not learned, careful attention needs to be paid to the assumption that a SL learner's production was a faithful reproduction of what she or he perceived the target sound to be.

Since SL beginners' strategic thinking can not be easily and exactly experimented with or observed, this dichotomy is based on inference. By split strategy it is meant that SL learners usually tend to diversify phonological constituents of the target language, and this process reveals individualization or the establishment of idiosyncratic features of phonological understanding and production. This statement is based on the assumption that input language verbally provided to SL learners is also complexified in tonal quality, articulation point or manner, and by individual variables. By merger strategy it is meant that SL learners usually tend to simplify phonological properties and standardize the diversified input language according to their assumption that in spite of the complexification, there are similarities or universalities in the heard language. In the previous chapter, language specific complexification and simplification were presented in relation to morphemes and words.

Hatch(1983) suggested that children acquiring L1 phonology are learning how to control language physiologically and that "physiological ease/difficulty may be an important factor in L2 phonology, especially for very young second language learners"(p. 23). However, her notion of 'ease' is not applicable nor plausible to adult and school age SL learners because they have already learned and acquired control of the vocal apparatus. Another notion of 'markedness' which is derived and modified from Contrastive Analyses hypothesis is similar to her notion of 'ease.'

At the beginning stage, SL learners' acquisition of phonology was interpreted in two ways. First was on the basis of the concept of 'markedness'[2] (Rutherford 1982). However, SL learners' erroneous pronunciation and misunderstanding does not seem to be explained by the concept of markedness. For example, Tables 12-1, 2, and 13-1, 2 indicated that SL learners' deviant, multi-directional mistakes and errors were not necessarily due to the salient contrast between two languages, but due to SL learners' strategic thinking. In addition, their errors looked situational and temporary. Self-confidence induced fewer errors. Language input given to SL learners included some varieties in it, but input was modified according to SL learners' interpretation. Their interpretation was not constant. This inconsistancy was attributed to split strategy. Differences of linguistic properties of two language can not explain or predict the SL learners' phonological acquisition, even though the notion of 'markedness' has made a contribution to psycholinguistic approaches. What was observed in this study was a little different from that which the advocators presented, and this notion can not explain the interference of L1 phonology in SLA. Morevoer, the effect of interference is both positive and negative. Dulay et al.(1982) hypothesize that the SL learners at the beginning stage make extensive use of first language phonological structures as communicative strategies, and "the new phonology is built up using L1 phonology, and uses it as a foundation for further learning, the learner's SL speech will have a substratum of L1 sounds"(p. 112). However, this study showed that SL learners' errors were to some extent induced by multi-directional split or merger strategies. Such strategies were not reflected by contrastive differences between two languages. Interference hypotheses can not explain individually different phonological errors.

Another view is the motor theory of speech perception. Clark and Clark(1977) summarize this theory by saying: "since this theory conceives of the internal speech synthesizer as a model of the motor movements of the other person's speech mechanisms, it is called the *motor theory of speech perception*"(p. 207). However, SL listeners do not always use their own speech production mechanism to identify or synthesize their input language. According to this theory, it is assumed that people could not understand speech they could not produce. Human beings can, by nature, understand what they have never heard as well as produce what they have never learned; that is to say, persons have heuristic capabilities and grasp meanings from contextual cues. This view is mainly concerned with the identification of isolated speech sounds. Speech sounds are segments of total discourse, sentence- or higher-level of stream of sounds.

These above-mentioned notions of 'markedness' and 'mechanism' imply that there may be difficulties in acquiring SL from linguistic constituents themselves. However, linguistic components are only an instrument of communication and a part of discourse mode. SL learners, who had communicative intentions in the classroom and during the interview, produced utterances in an exaggerated manner and tended to harden some phonological components, while SL learners without any communicative intention tended to weaken and delete some phonological components. This study provided some evidence that phonological diversification and simplicity at the primitive stage seems to be transitional and temporary, and also made some explanations of phonological understanding and production on the basis of language learning process and acquisition strategies.

A recent reasonable view of strategies for phonological acquisition was suggested by Tarone(1980) as follows:

> Slow Rate -
> 1. clearer articulation(little "sandhi variation")
> 2. Final stops are released and voiced final stops more heavily voiced
> 3. Some glottal stops used before words beginning with vowels
> 4. Fewer reduced vowels and fewer contradictions
> 5. Longer pauses
> 6. Extra volume and exaggerated intonation
>
> (p. 423)

(1) and (5) out of her proposal belong to the property of interactional aspects between self and language under a specific circumstance such as a passive turn-getting situation in the classroom learning. Statements (2), (3) and (4) can be converged into the split and merger strategies. The two strategies presented in the previous chapter have complementary relationships, but not exclusive strategies. Thus, according to context, these strategies may be alternatively used.

Another consideration of split and merger strategies has to do with SL learners' interaction with environments. Accurate and careful articulations are used in formal situations(Hatch, 1983). Environmental factors influence the accuracy of language production. The accuracy in the formal situation is to some extent related to monitoring. Monitoring as a learning strategy may sometimes increase the accuracy rate, but does not expand language use, because SL learners are likely to concentrate on the linguistic components within a limited range of old information. The interactional situation and communicative intention can be a main factor for SLA. Individual variables imply that the extent and degree of difficulty is connected with personality and context. This study provided some evidence for individual variables manifested via split and merger strategies. It seems that while some linguistic components are difficult for one person, they are not so difficult for another one. Moreover, school age SL learners have the experience of mastering their native language phonology. This experience may also constitute a positive affect on SLA. Formality of the speech situation may change the degree of accuracy in producing particular sounds.

A formal task in class and turn-taking structures will influence the phonological development of SL learners. Rubin(1975) cites a few general strategies used by good language learners such as guessing, a willingness to take a risk, using acquired competence to improve the target language, and a high motivation to communicate. He suggests that a 'good language learner' actively takes and creates opportunities to practice what she or he has learned while a 'poor learner' does so passively. His statements and findings provide for the suggestions of this study about the influence of turn-getting motivation on SLA. Turn-taking motivation is directly related to SL learners' individual personality and motivational factors and language use. Fewer errors or fewer interlanguage-like pronunciations were found in the active turn-getting situation.

In the interviewing situation, pressures by turn-allocation induced long pauses, false starts, hesitations, and code-switchings. On the contrary, in the passive turn-getting situation, a SL learner, for example S3, showed a strong adoptation of idiosyncratic dialect more frequently than S2 in the classroom. P, an ESL beginner, in the passive turn-getting situation frequently depended upon the phonological cues from other peers and took fewer risks in the class. Another interesting observation was that input received from peers was to some extent influential on the subsequent speech. The process of input modification and adjustment was that the SL learners got new information from teachers and during the classroom interaction in the orderly structured class turn sequences and turn allocation, the first speaker affected the next speaker in the syntactical and phonological domain. Evidence for this suggestion was found in the previous section.

3. PROSODIC DEVELOPMENT

Phonemes are the minimal units of segments of an utterance, word-level features are culturally determined in the word, and "discourse phonology is concerned with features over which the speaker does have independent control, features that are the consequence of separate - and therefore separately meaningful - choices" (Brazil, 1985, p. 58). Without the suprasegmental cues, it is difficult to interpret an utterance or a sentence accurately. "While it seems more plausible that intonation depends both on discourse and on syntactic plans, differences in meaning signalled by stress, juncture, and intonation are important in SL learning"(Hatch, 1983, p. 38).

The developmental aspects of SL phonology showed the phonological adjustment through classroom interactions. Phonological adjustment can be defined as "the maximal utilization of intonational phrases within an utterance"(Avery et al., 1985, p. 221). Phonological adjustment is limited to specific points in the discourse, and to core information within the discourse. SL learners tend to modify language input in two directions: one is naturalness, and the other is unnaturalness. The first seems to occur in the active turn-getting situation, while the second seemed to be heard in the passive turn-getting situation. As shown in the previous section, prosodic unnaturalness[3] was one of the characteristics of the formal class. Monotonous tone is derived from the frozen style of register in formal speech, and also from the fact that classroom discourse may focus on the grammaticality rather than communicative function. The degree of monotony seemed to depend on the task and the topic of the lesson event.

Another prosodic feature of SL beginners was the misapplication of falling and rising intonation in the passive turn-getting situation. In other words, irregular misapplication was related to the speaker's tension or pressure in a specific context. Communicative intentions frequently reflected the speaker's contextual understanding, and contextualization cues facilitated production as well as comprehension in conversations. The SL class lesson, when it can not provide pragmatic information, usually emphasizes the writte discourse mode. Written texts did not seem to contribute to prosodic variants, but did induce some misapplication. Example 99 below is an illustration of the misapplication of prosody to written discourse mode.

Example 99:
a. S1: * *ipoon-un zeo-ui apeozi(.)-iyeoyo?* (rising)

ipoon-un zeo-ui seonsangnim ieoyo/ (falling)

THIS IS MY FATHER. THIS IS MY TEACHER.
b. S2: * *eonni-nun seolkeo(:)zi-lul hayeosseo-yo?* (rising)

* *eonni-nun soozeo-lul kkaekkusi ssiseosseo-yo?* (rising)

MY ELDER SISTER WASHED DISHES. MY ELDER SISTER WASHED SPOONS CLEANLY.
c. S3: *seolthang-kwa kanzang mas-un eotteyo/* (falling)

* *seolthang-un talko kanzang-un zza-yo?* (rising)

WHAT DO SUGAR AND BEAN SAUCE TASTE LIKE? SUGAR IS SWEET, AND BEAN SAUCE IS SALTY.

Example 99-a shows that KSL child S1 read texts with the same declarative statement in different prosody. He uttered the first sentence in a question form prosody and the second in a declarative. Example 99-b shows that child S2 read the text in a question form including rising intonations. Example 99-c shows that since the first one was *Wh*-question, it was read in a falling intonation, but the next one in a rising intonation. These examples suggest that these SL students are sensitive to question-answer form speech acts. It seemed to SL learners that the two sentences given to them as input are composed of one question and one answer.

ESL beginners' utterances displayed word-unit features, while KSL beginners' tones in the multi-word and sentence level utterance showed a tendency towards level tone. As Brazil(1985) stated it, the task of making a mental separation between word level phonological features and discourse level ones is "complicated somewhat by the fact that when words are spoken aloud they already have features that indicate their status as constituents of a discourse"(p. 58).

Another characteristic of KSL beginners' utterances was related to the features of juncture prosodies. The misapplication of juncture, that is, unnatural pauses and liaison, seemed to improve with each language developmental stage. The understanding and use of chunks by KSL beginners seemed to be based on their own hypotheses about juncture prosodies. Irregular pause, modified interpretation, and erroneous liason of the utterance tended to affect the flow of conversation or led to misunderstanding of the discourse. "Spoken discourse occurs in real time, and discourse conditions change from moment to moment"(Brazil 1985, p. 62).

4. MISUNDERSTANDING

It is assmed that the complexity and ambiguity of syntactic and/or semantic components reduce misunderstanding, but interpretation differences between speaker and hearer also induce misunderstanding. Gumperz(1985) illustrates classroom interactions as follows:

> T: *James, what does this word say?*
> J: *I don't know.*
> T: *Well, if you don't want to try someone else will, Fredddy?*
> F: *Is that a* p *or* b?
> T: (encouragingly) *It's a* p.
> F: *pen.*
> (p. 147-148)

Since James(J) answered "I don't know" with rising intonation, his utterance implied, "I need some encouragement." The teacher asked Freddy(F) to answer the question, and Freddy asked a question in return. His question in effect had the same 'meaning' (communicative function) as James' statement "I need some encouragement." However, communication misunderstanding is likely to occur in terms of presupposition and/or prosodic contour, or liaison or juncture in an utterance. Clark and Clark(1977) insist that the perception of on-going speech shows that the auditory, phonetic, and phonological processes are not enough. Ordinary speech is too full of missing and unintelligible words to be perceived accurately; instead, there may be an active process to make its perception consistent with rhythm and intonation and with the way the speech is to be interpreted and utilized. Therefore, there seems to be a need to explain the clarity of components of ordinary speech, the phonemic restoration effect, misperceptions in casual speech and conversation, selective listening, and the communicators' difference in cultural understanding about pragmatic information. Example 100 presents evidence for phonological misperception and misleading expectation toward the conversational opponent.

Example 100: *(Tape #35, KSL)*

1 T: *mas-i mweo-yeyo, mat?/*
WHAT IS 'MAS' CALLED, 'MAT'?
2 Ss: taste/
3 T: *onul mas-e taehaeseo paewukess-eoyo/*
TODAY, WE WILL LEARN SOMETHING ABOUT TASTES.
4 *mas-i yeoleo kazi iss-eoyo/ wuli yeong-eolo yeoleo kazi mas-ul saeng-kak hae pokess-eoyo/*
THERE ARE A VARIETY OF TASTE. LET'S THINK ABOUT MANY KINDS OF TASTE.
5 *mweoka iss-eoyo, xxx(S2)?/*
WHAT WILL YOU SAY, xxx?
6 S2: disgusting/
7 T: discussing*-to mas-i yeyo?/ zikum* food*-e taehaeseo hanunte/*
IS "DISCUSSING" A KIND OF TASTE? NOW WE ARE TALKING ABOUT "FOOD".

Example 100 shows the different presupposition or expectation of mutual knowledge and different interpretation of the opposite party. This example indicates that in the classroom situation the teacher preassumed that the linguistic comprehensibility and manipulative capabilities of SL learners was restricted. S2's answer implied and included the word disgusting in the category of 'taste', whereas the teacher perceived and interpreted the uttered word as discussing which seems to be far from the category of 'taste.' In some sense, the two participants' assertions were individually reasonable.

As Example 101 shows, misunderstanding can be counted for in terms of ego-centric interpretation of pragmatic information.

Example 101: *(Tape #44, KSL)*

1 R: *kulim kulinunkeo zohahae? neka manyak hwakaka twentamyeon mwol manhi kulil kkeoya?*
DO YOU LIKE PAINTING? IF YOU ARE A PAINTER, WHAT WILL YOU PAINT?
3 S2: scribble/x/*-haeyo.*
4 R: *mwolako?*
WHAT DO YOU MEAN?
5 S2: *sinkyongchil namyeon* scribble *haeyo.*
WHEN I AM ANGRY, I SCRIBBLE.

In Example 101, S2 applied selective listening, and omitted the duplicated part kaka and interpreted it as hwaka. And in the next stream of sounds, he recognized or interpreted the word twemyeon as namyeon. Pragmatically and semantically, these two words are different. The final segment was "what will you draw or paint?" His response was "Just scribbling." He guessed the question as an awkward one in this situation, but he made a cooperative response. It seems that S2 was not sensitive to R's confirmation checks on line (4), and S2's communicative intentions preceded any other pragmatic information.

In these. cases, misperception could be interpreted in two ways. One is the phonological view point or as segment and juncture perception. How do SL learners discern these differences? They usually learn the juncture and pause distinction through interaction between/among participants, context, and language. And another interpretation comes from the contextual differences in speech events and topics. These misunderstandings and misperceptions provide evidence against the motor theory of language perception, and create strong doubts about the markedness approach, since the distinction between markedness and unmarkedness are sometimes very ambiguous in the use of language.

As SL beginners learned the target language, one salient communicative alternative, a confirmation check, appeared. At the primitive stage, their inability was shown in the silence and discourse negations or sometimes affirmatives. Their attempt to make conversations flow smoothly seemed to be through the application of confirmation checks, which were found at the later stages in beginning KSL and ESL learners' interviewing situations. It seemed that confirmation checks were employed as a diagnostic commentary to continue speech acts.

Example 102: (*Tape #34, KSL*)
1 T: *eung?/*
WHAT?
2 S2: *pal?/*
3 T: *pal?/ i(:) pal?/[pointing to her own foot] ikeon pal-izi, ppal-i anizi/*
FOOT? THIS FOOT? THIS (word) HAS A /p/ SOUND, NOT A /p'/ SOUND.
5 S2: *son/X/?/*
HAND, HAND?
6 T: *tto, mweoka itna?/ wuli saeng-kak haeseo/=PP tuleo kanun-keo paeweot-jo/*(3) *saeng-kak haepwa/* [Sf raises his hand] xxx(Sf)/

On lines (2) and (5), child S2 wanted to continue the conversation, and exploited confirmation checks as he was not convinced his response was correct.

To synthesize, confirmation checks can be explained as communicative alternatives according to the development of conversational skills. The reason why confirmation checks occurred late were that they appeared in specific context, and required some linguistic and conversational conditions. A confirmation check occurred when the children

1. could not fully understand what the previous speaker intended to say or to do;
2. had little confidence about the question or the information;
3. showed cooperativeness toward the topic continuation;
4. intended to negotiate the current topic;
5. intended to take an initiative in conversation;
6. wanted to provide information about correct facts or feelings.

SL learners' conversational skills were manifested by the appearance of a confirmation check before/when their misunderstanding was expected to occur. Question forms and suprasegmental elements constituted communicative intentions and commissive functions. The increase of pragmatic understanding seemed to precede syntactic and phonological maturity and fluency. In addition, efficient conversation can be performed through the understanding of the communicators. The next chapter will deal with the relationship between language and social deictic understanding.

NOTE

1. Ochs(1979a) says: "the choice of phonological variant is constrained by the speaker's perception of a situation as relatively formal(selection of more prestigious variant), by his intention to maximize or minimize social distance (solidarity) with an addressee, by the social roles of speaker and a hearer(e.g., register), by the genre of discourse produced, and so on. Similarly, prosodic patterns are sensitive to these contextual fearures"(p. 6).

2. Rutherford(1982) proposes that any segment becomes marked by the addition of features for voicing, aspiration, nasalization, etcetera, whereas an unmarkedness is characterized by the absence of that feature.

3. Gumperz(1985) states that "prosody includes (a) intonation, i.e., pitch levels; (b) changes in loudness; (c) stress; (d) other variations in vowel length; (e) phrasing, including utterance chunking; and (f) overall shifts in speech register"(p. 100).

Chapter VIII

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: ACQUISITION OF SOCIAL DEIXIS

Since the medium of speech acts is sound, reception of the speech signal is limited to a very narrow area surrounding the speaker and the hearer. SL beginners, whose proficiency level was very low, were frequently faced with difficulties in the encoding and decoding which took place in temporal, spatial, and personal contiguity. An understanding of how to communicate effectively is an important aspect of the interpersonal communication as a process in which the participants interact with one another (Brooks & Emmert, 1980). In this process, the directional identification of the speaker and the hearer occurred prior to the communicative act. The process of SLA should include the acquisition of such "directional structure inherent in the speech act" (Rommetveit, 1968, p. 45). The directional structure is referred to as social deixis. This chapter deals with the question: "How do SL learners develop interlanguage in terms of deictic information?"

The aim of this chapter is to interpret the extent of beginning KSL learners' acquisition of the use of the target language, and to understand the relationship between language and context reflected in the structures of the target language. The first section is concerned with the results and findings of the data analysis in relation to social deixis. Social deixis is found in participants roles, that is, in aspects of the social relationship between communicators. The second section contributes to the interpretation and discussion of utterances in terms of deictic information. In addition, since phonetic and phonemic symbols of Korean which were transcribed in English vary from author to author, this study uses a modified alphabetical system to reduce the complexity of the transcription systems.

A. FINDINGS

This section deals with the developmental aspects of KSL learners' acquisition of personal and social deixes. Speaker honorifics, adressee honorifics, referent honorifics, audience honorifics, and honorific concord are the main focus of this section.

1. SPEAKER HONORIFICS/PERSONAL PRONOUN

In the Korean language, there are many lexical items to express a speaker's modesty and politeness. In conversations, na and zeo (*I* in English) are usually used as a pronoun in formal and informal situations. Na belongs to the category of respect, and zeo, to that of common disrespect. These two words are included in the KSL learners' textbooks and reading materials. In the KSL class lessons during the first month of observation, 'zeo' was introduced and practiced to KSL students as shown Example 103.

Example 103: *(Tape #31, KSL)*

1 S2: *i poon-un(.) zeo-ui(.) samchoon(.) iyeo-yo/*
THIS IS MY UNCLE.
2 T: *taum/= xxx(Sf)/*[calling her name]
NEXT, xxx(Sf).
3 Sf: *i poon-un(.) zeo-ui(.) we halmeoni yeoyo/*
THIS IS MY MATERNAL GRANDMOTHER.

On lines (1) and (3), SL learners' reading materials provide the use of zeo, and SL beginners practiced the word in the subsequent lessons, too. Sometimes, SL learners were asked to read their compositions which had been assigned as homework as shown in Example 104.

Example 104: *(Tape #36, KSL)*

[Students are presenting their own compositions in Korean]
1 S2: *zeo-nun sathang(2)-ul/=zeo-nun*
sathang (5)/= zeo-nun (2) sathang-ul
masisseo-yo/ sathang-un tala-yo/
I... CANDY, I CANDY, I TASTE GOOD
CANDY IS SWEET.
3 *(6) kuliko* ice-cream-*to masisseo-yo/*
AND ICE-CREAM IS DELICIOUS.
4 Ice-cream-*un talko (1) chakeo*
weo-yo/ kwail-to masisseo-yo/
ICE-CREAM IS SWEET AND COLD.
FRUIT IS DELICIOUS.
5 S3: *zeo-nun/- na-nun umsik/ na-nun*
zoha hanun umsik manhi isseo-yo/ na-nun
zoha hanun umsik-ul meokeo-yo/
I, I ...FOOD. I HAVE A LOT OF
FAVORITE FOODS. I EAT MY FAVORITE FOOD.

On line (1), S2 carefully read his homework and used correct first-person pronoun forms, while on line (5) S3 uttered zeo and na alternatively. Even though they recognized and understood the social status relations between teachers and students, contextual use of na and zeo was not clear nor distinct. Table 13-1 shows the number of times where speaker honorifics were used correctly or incorrectly by beginning KSL learners.

Table 13-1. KSL students' use of speaker honorifics

Students	S1			S2			S3		
Step	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III
** Speaker Honorifics (*na*)	11	4	17	5	29	22	19	10	24
Speaker Modesty (*zeo/wuli*)	2	4	1	7	3		4	2	2

Note. ** refers 'pragmatically unacceptable'

Table 13-1 shows that the pragmatically acceptable use of speaker honorifics did not decrease over the three steps. The differences in the number of inappropriate uses of speaker honorifics seemed to reflect only the different number of contexts where speaker honorifics were used. Nevertheless, S2 used wuli at the first stage, S1 used zeo at the first stage, and S3 wuli at the third stage, but its use was not repetitive during the interviews. S2, for example, frequently used the word zeo or wuli during the first interview and in the lesson, but never used it in the third stage. As for the teachers, they frequently used the common respect honorific, seonsaeng-nim(*Teacher* in English) indicating her status or position as shown in Example 105.

Example 105: *(Tape #36, KSL)*
1 T: *seonsaeng nim-i kulziski hal ttae-nun zeokeoto myeos-zool ssula-ko kulaesseo-yo?/*
DO YOU KNOW AT LEAST WHAT SENTENCES I SAID YOU SHOULD WRITE FOR YOUR HOMEWORK?
3 Ss: Five sentences/

On line (1), the teacher used the word seonsaeng nim instead of na (*I* in English). In the Korean language system of honorifics, according to the context or the speech event, a speaker can use a word to identify and display her or his social status, instead of using pronouns.

2. ADDRESSEE HONORIFICS: PERSONAL PRONOUN

Since much of the classroom discourse consists of question-answer style conversations, the developmental aspects were almost the same as those found in morphosyntactic development.

One of the most prevailing characteristics of the KSL classroom discourses was that SL beginners uttered non-honorifics, or affix or morpheme-omitted simplified forms and structures, regardless of their topics and their addressees. The realization of the omission of addressee honorific elements on the surface occurred when they focused on topic or comment, as shown in Table 13-2.

Table 13-2. KSL students' use of addressee honorifics

Students	S1			S2			S3		
Step	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III
Addressee Honorifics	17	93	86	11	81	66	24	90	118
** Addressee NonHon.	17	16	30	35	31	18	44	9	33
Response in Honorifics	21	46	39	30	46	25	43	17	36
** NonHono. Response	3	1	6	18	8	11	12	2	1

Note. ** refers 'pragmatically unacceptable'.

Table 13-2 shows that at the second and third stages, all three children uttered a relatively smaller number of inappropriate addressee nonhonorifics. Through the three steps, KSL beginners used appropriate honorifics to indicate '*seonsaeng-nim*' as 'teacher' in English, instead of *tangsin* or *neo* corresponding to 'you' in English. In the classroom, SL learners uttered *seonsaengnim* frequently when they call her, as shown in Example 106.

Example 106: *(Tape #45, KSL)*
1 S2: *seonsaengnim, ta(:) haess-eoyo/*
SIR, I AM FINISHED.

Example 106 shows that S2 calls his teacher by a pro-noun, not by her name such as 'Mrs. S', in English.

Table 13-3 also shows that in the use of negative or positive response signals, irrespective of code-switching, KSL beginners displayed a quantitative decrease from the first stages to the later stages. Such a choice of lexicon indicated that KSL beginners' pragmatic understanding about social relations were established in the primitive stages.

Table 13-3. KSL students' use of honorifics in response

Students	S1			S2			S3		
Step	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III
Hon. Response: *'ye' 'ne'*	18	45	36	28	46	19	43	16	35
Hon. Response: *'anio'*	3	4	3	2		6		1	1
** NonHon. Response: *'ung'*			4	8	6	8	10	2	1
** NonHon. Response: *'ani'*	3	1	2	10	2	3	2		

Note. Hon. refers honorific; ** NonHon. refers pragmatically unacceptable nonhonorific.

Table 13-3 shows that SL learners frequently used honorific response signal ye or ne in affirmative replies to teachers and older people such as the researcher(see Example 107).

Example 107: *(Tape #54, KSL)*

1 R: *we-halapeozi hako we-halmeoni-nun pwass-kessne?/*
DID YOU SEE YOUR MATERNAL GRANDFATHER AND MATERNAL GRANDMOTHER?

2 S2: *ne/*
YES.

3 R: Vancouver-*enun ka(:) pwass-eo?/*
HAVE YOU EVER BEEN TO VANCOUVER?

4 S2: *ani/*
NO.

5 R: *kuleom, we-halmeoni-ka osyeoss-eo?/*
DID YOUR MATERNAL GRANDMOTHER COME HERE?

6 S2: *ne/*
YES.

Example 107 shows that S2 used honorific responses ne in affirmative answers, but nonhonorific responses ani in negative answers such as line (4). KSL beginners' mixed the use of honorific and nonhonorific expressions in their response as seen in Example 108.

Example 108: *(Tape #54, KSL)*
1 R: Canadian *hakkyo-nun kakkaweo?/*
IS YOUR CANADIAN SCHOOL NEAR HERE?
2 S2: *ung/*
YES.
3 R: *keoleo tanyeo?/*
DO YOU WALK TO SCHOOL?
4 S2: *ne/*
YES.

Example 108 indicates that in the informal situation SL learners tended to use intimate terms or nonhonorific expressions. During the interviews, at the beginning, S2 used rigid honorific responses ne, but when he did not feel the formality he occasionally used nonhonorific responses. The use of affixes and morphemes showed a slow progress in the primitive and developing stages.

3. REFERENT HONORIFICS

Referent honorifics manifest the existence of social status of the addressee, and her or his relation to the referent. Referent honorifics work as syntactical parenthesis in the utterance structure. They also reflect the relations among three or more persons in the topic or comment. In conversations, the complicated social relations are frequently expressed in many ways by the alternative use of lexicons, by affixes or the omission of affixes, and by using morphemes or by the omission of morphemes to demonstrate the relations, modesty and/or respectful status. KSL learners' correct use and misuse of referent honorifics are shown in Table 13-4.

Table 13-4. KSL students' use of referent honorifics

Students	S1			S2			S3		
Step	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III
Referent Honorifics	4	8	7	5	3	1	5	3	1
Referent NonHonorifics	2	5	8	1	3	7	8	3	6
** Referent NonHonorifics	5	7	4	4	8	5	6	7	3

Note. ** refers pragmatically unacceptable.

Table 13-4 shows that there was a tendency for decreased use of inappropriate referent nonhonorifics according to the developmental stage, although the speed and rate of the decrease seemed very slow. A glance at the use of pragmatically acceptable nonhonorifics of Table 13-4 reveals that three children decreased the number at the third step, compared with the second step. Referent honorifics are closely related to honorific concord (see Part 5 of this section). Detailed examples are shown in the part of honorific concord of this chapter.

4. AUDIENCE HONORIFICS

Teacher talk contained many audience honorifics in the formal instructional settings in the classroom (see Example 109).

Example 109: (*Tape #38, KSL*)

1 T: *ku tong-ane iss-eoss-teon il-ul hanpeon*
iyaki hae po-seyo/ (3) za(:), (2)
xxx(S1) *puteo na-o se-yo/ nawa-seo*
zaki-ka ku tong-an iss-eoss-teon i(:)l,
(2) chinkoo tul-eke hakosiphun iyaki
han kazi-ssik ha-seyo/ za(:) na-o
se-yo/
PLEASE, SAY ONE THING THAT HAPPENED TO
YOU. NOW, xxx, COME UP HERE, AND SAY
WHAT HAPPENED TO YOU, OR ONE THING THAT
YOU WANTED TO TELL IT TO YOUR FRIENDS.
PLEASE, COME UP HERE.

In Example 109, the teacher added honorific suffixes -seyo and yo to verbs(the underlined part), and referred to the class students as chinkoo tul (*friends* in English instead of ael tul (*children* in English) or haksaeng tul (*students* in English). On the other hand, the honorifics were not found in KSL learners' utterances even in formal situations. They usually used intimate terms and register in the formal situation. Their pragmatic understanding of formality was not found in the use of words, nor in the lexical alternatives in their utterances.

Example 110: *(Tape #33, KSL)*

[Sn spread some dust in the classroom. He is supposed to apologize for his misdoings]

1 T: *kuleokhe hanun keosi zohun il-iyeyo?*
nappun il-iyeyo?
IS SUCH AN ACT RIGHT OR WRONG?

2 Sn: *nappun-il*
WRONG.

3 T: *kuleom nookoo hanthe mian haeyo ung?*(1)
nookoo hanthe mianhae?
IF SO, TO WHOM DO YOU HAVE TO APOLOGIZE?
nookoo hanthe mian hae?
TO WHOM DO YOU FEEL SORRY?

5 Sn: (3) *chin-koo.*
FRIENDS

6 T: *chinkoo tul hanthe mian hazi?* (2) *mian hal ttae-nun eotteoke iyaki haeya twe?*
YOU FEEL SORRY FOR YOUR FRIENDS, DON'T YOU? WHAT SHOULD YOU DO WHEN YOU FEEL SORRY FOR THEM?

8 Sn: (2) *nanun mian hae-yo.*
I AM SORRY.

On line (5) of Example 110, Sn referred to the whole class as chinkoo. KSL learners had a few opportunities to use audience honorifics in the classroom conversations. Since one of the characteristics of classroom conversation was a teacher-centered discourse, it seemed that KSL learners' real audience was their teacher, not the students in the classroom. Example 110 is an illustration of an apology to an audience. Sn said, "nanun mian haeyo" on line (8) of Example 110. In this case, the word 'nanun' is redundant, and so only the sentence 'mian haeyo' might have been enough. The situation illustrated that Sn really apologized to his teacher, but not to his classmates. The teacher was regarded as audience in lesson events.

5. HONORIFIC CONCORD

The understanding of social, family, kinship, and other status relations between communicators and between communicators and referents is closely related to honorific concord. The language use and the development of the language world must be found in the honorific concord. The relations can be seen in the three dimensions. The first dimension is ego-centric, self world; the second is the relational systems between speakers and hearers; and the third is the relational network organization among speakers, addressees, and referents. Pragmatically appropriate use of language by SL learners can be considered in terms of these three dimensions. The first dimension can be found in the speaker's modesty. The second dimension shows absolute and relative relations between speakers and hearers. The third dimension can be found in the relational expression among them.

Example 111 shows deviant uses of honorifics to refer to a younger person.

Example 111: *(Tape #31, KSL)*
1 T: xxx(S3)
2 S3: *tongsaeng-i/*
YOUNGER BROTHER
3 T: *ye,*
YES,
4 S3: ** *uhm, ye, tongsaeng-i tola o-syeoss-eoyo/*
UHM, YES, BROTHER HAS RETURNED.[using honorifics]

In the response, since 'tongsaeng' (*'younger brother'* in English) was a referent, the word 'tolawasseoyo' should be used in place of 'tolao-ssyeoss-eoyo.' On the contrary, Korean has honorific suffixes and words to respect older people. Example 112 shows pragmatically unacceptable referent nonhonorific concord.

Example 112: *(Tape #56, KSL)*
1 R: *chaknyeon Christmas-enun eoti kass-na?*
WHERE DID YOU GO DURING LAST CHRISTMAS HOLIDAYS?
2 S2: *wuli komo zhipe kako, ** wuli eomeoni zipe isseo.*
WE GO (went) TO MY AUNT'S AND MY MOTHER IS HOME
(or IT IS IN MY MOTHER'S HOUSE).

Example 113: *(Tape #53, KSL)*
1 R: *halmeoni eolkool ala?*
DO YOU KNOW YOUR GRANDMOTHER BY THE FACE?
2 S1: ** *kunyang halmeoni-nun an posyeosseo-yo.*
MY GRANDMOTHER DID NOT SEE (it).

The use of referent honorifics by KSL beginners was greatly confused. The honorific concord is closely related to the speaker, addressee, and referent. The utterance on line (2) of Example 112 "wuli eomeoni zipe isseo" can be seen as grammatically correct without considering the context. When A asks B: "Where is your puppy?" or "Where is your younger brother?", A can say in Korean: "wuli eomeoni zipe isseo." When the referent is the speaker's younger brother, an object, or an animal, the word isseo will be correct. In this case, the utterance is interpreted as the one with an omitted possessive. In the interview situation, S2 wanted to say: "My mother was at home," and so it was a pragmatically inappropriate utterance.

In the utterance on line (2) of Example 113, S1 used a speaker honorific, even though its literal meaning was "My grandmother did not see it." His intention was to say : "I did not see my grandmother," not, "My grandmother did not see it." S1 used a subjective particle 'nun' after 'halmeoni' (*grandmother* in English). He should have said, "halmeoni-lul an poasseo-yo." In this utterance, the objective particle -lul, the speaker modes 'poass' including past or present perfect tense, and the addressee honorifics -eoyo. The acquisition of honorific concord seemed to be slow. At none of the stages did the subjects acquire such an honorific concord.

B. DISCUSSION

The Korean language has a number of speech levels and relatively complicated honorific terms reflecting social relationships and speech context. The acquisition of KSL includes the awareness of communicators' relationships, because speaker-addressee, speaker-referent, and addressee-referent relationships must be expressed in the use of Korean.

One of the most salient aspects of the use of Korean by KSL learners was an uncertain identification of the speaker and the referent. This aspect was frequently found where there was no deictic information. Another salient aspect was the use of personal deixes represented by the structure of personal pronouns. This section deals with the interpretation of Korean personal deixes, vocatives, and honorific concord used by KSL learners.

1. SPEAKER HONORIFICS: PERSONAL PRONOUN

The result of data analysis showed that KSL learners tended to acquire plain forms of the first person pronoun, and the use of the second person pro-forms at the early stage, while humble forms of the first-person pronoun were acquired late. It is widely accepted that Korean pronouns are 'pro-noun' or 'noun substitutes'(Cho, 1982; Hwang, 1975). The first- and second-person pronoun systems are classified by Hwang(1975) as follows:

FIRST PERSON PRONOUN

	Nominative	Accusative	Dative	Possessive
Plain Singular	na(-nɨn/ka)	na(-lɨl)	na(-eke)	na(-ɨi)
Plural	wuli "	wuli "	wuli "	wuli "
Humble Singular	zeo "	zeo "	zeo "	zeo "
Plural	zeohitɨl (-ɨn/-i)	zeohitɨl (-ɨl)	zeohitɨl "	zeohitɨl "

SECOND PERSON PRONOUN

Root ne	ne(-nɨn/ka)	ne(-rɨl)	ne(-ekē]	ne(-ɨl)
zane	zane "	zane "	zane "	zane "
tangsin	tangsin (-ɨn/-i)	tangsin (-ɨl)	tangsin "	tangsin "

Note. adapted from Hwang (1975, p. 24) and some phonetic symbols in English were modified.

Hwang(1975) also indicates that the characteristics of Korean pronouns are 'noun substitutes', and their uses are usually understood not in the traditional grammatical concept of 'person' but in the social interactional concept of 'sender and receiver' in various contexts.

(A) SPEAKER HONORIFICS: FIRST PERSON PRONOUN

The choice of the plain or humble form of the first person pronoun depends upon the relationship between communicators. The priority of the choice is frequently assigned to the context rather than social relationships; that is to say, if the situation or context is informal, the choice of pro-noun forms are context-bound. According to the context, it is possible that kinship relations are prior to the social status of the speaker or addressee. The humble form of the first person is used "when the speaker honors or shows deference to the addressee. There exists a rather strict co-occurrence restrictions between the form of the first-person pronouns and the forms of address terms and other linguistic markers of deference"(Hwang 1975, p. 70).'

KSL beginners showed a tendency to use plain form 'na' more frequently than humble form zeo or plural wuli. It seemed that KSL learners usually attached themselves to ego or self, and the awareness of the relationship between communicators was acquired slowly. Cho(1982) describes the use of Korean first-person pronoun in terms of pragmatics as follows:

> Most, if not all, grammarians would classify wuli only as plural, but from a pragmatic point of view, there is more to wuli than a simple plural function, as will be made clear shortly. It has been the tradition to

> describe na as a neutral or plain form and zeo as a humble form of na(p. 23).

By neutral he means that it is unmarked in terms of honorifics and deference. The use of 'na' is acceptable and appropriate where the speaker and the addressee are equals or the speaker is higher in status than the addressee and/or senior in age.

KSL learners' frequent use of 'na' seemed to explain the fact that self-esteem or ego-centricism develops first and self-humbleness comes later; furthermore by the awareness that social relationships are based on equal power relationships. Another interpretation is that optimal input and insufficient interaction would delay the awareness of cultural understanding and language use, i.e., of the humble forms of the first person pro-noun. As we have seen in the findings of this study, the fact that the children learned the humble form zeo in their written materials could not predict its use. Teachers seldom used the word zeo, but seonsaengnim or na instead. At home, it was a matter of course that their parents and grandmother also hardly used the word 'zeo' during their conversation with children. In phonological terms, the /na/ sound seemed to be acquired before the /z/ sound.

In the case of S2, wuli was used a few times during the interviewing and S1 and S3 uttered zeo. Another plausible interpretation of the late acquisition of zeo can be found in the micro-environmental factor; that is, the lack of interaction in similar contexts. When the KSL learners uttered an appropriate first person pronoun forms, this error was usually considered a developmental error, and little feedback or correction was provided by the teacher.

(B) ADDRESSEE HONORIFICS: SECOND PERSON PRONOUN

In Korean, there are many second person pronouns, but they are infrequently used in real conversations. Pragmatically, the dyadic conversation preassumes the presence of a speaker and a hearer. This presupposition renders the denotation of the speaker or the addressee redundant in face-to-face conversations. Practically, the first and the second person pronoun in Korean is frequently deleted, except when there is a need to emphasize or clarify the addressee. When a word for designating the addressee is required, it is often "replaced by a nonpronominal substitute denoting social positions, kinship terms, and other interpersonal relations"(Cho, 1982, p. 54).

Cho(1982) has illustrated six pronominal forms of the second-person singular (neo, tangsin, zaki, zane, kutae, and imza), and four forms of the second-person plural (neohuy, neohuy-tul, neohuy-ne, and neohuyne-tul) saying, "Neo is a plain form corresponding to na 'I'. Its use is symmetric among equals of the younger generation and asymmetric between an adult speaker and a juvenile addressee. It is seldom used among adults unless they are close friends"(p. 33). However, in the KSL classroom situation, the word 'yeoleopoon' was sometimes used as shown in Example 114.

Example 114: *(Tape #43, KSL)*
a) T: *yeoleopoon annyeong haseyo.*
YOU-ALL, HOW ARE YOU?

(Tape #48, KSL)
b) T: *yeoleopoon hansalamul pihaengki-eta sillyeoseo hankook* seoul-*eta kazta nohumyeon, yeoleopoon seoul aljo? kuleomyeon* you don't speak-*hako kaman issul keoyeyo?*
WHEN ANYONE OF YOU IS CARRIED TO KOREA, SEOUL, BY PLANE, DO YOU KNOW SEOUL? THEN 'YOU DON'T SPEAK' WILL YOU KEEP SILENT?

Example 114 shows that the word yeoleopoon included audience honorifics. And, if one of the audience is denoted, an unspecified hansalam (*a man, someone, or anyone* in English) is added as shown in Example 114-b. In this way, the word yeoleopoon (*all of you* in English) was often uttered by teachers to denote the collective class or to metaphorically direct the whole but really meaning only one or a few people. In rhetoric or speech style, this word is frequently added, such as 'haksaeng yeoleopoon' (*'all of you students'* in English) or 'simin yeoleopoon' (*all of you citizen* in English). The KSL teacher did not, if ever, use the word neohuytul in the lesson events. On the other hand, the KSL learners did not use yeoleopoon to indicate the whole class, but used the word chinkootul (*friends* in English) instead(see Example 110). This was evidence that KSL learners could distinguish the address form to be used by teachers from that used by students to refer students. It provided phylogenetic differences between stages of L1 learning child and those of the school age SL child. School age SL children were aware of the different social status between communicators during interaction with adults and peers.

(C) THIRD PERSON PRONOUN

The third person pronoun was infrequently used by the KSL learners. The word ku-(i) (*he*, but literally 'the' in English) and the word ku-nyeo (*she*, but literally 'the female' in English) can be used on rare occasions. Actually, third person pronouns were often heard in ESL or European second languages classes in Korea where teachers and students are required to translate those languages into Korean. Just like the second-person pronoun and vocatives (in the next section), the third person pro-noun was replaced by the noun substitute indicating her or his position, kinship terms, or other social relationships.

A married woman often uses ku-i to refer to her husband when she talks with other people who have similar social status. However, since the word ku-nyeo sometimes connotates a contemptuous attitude toward the referent, it is seldom used in actual conversation. Only when classroom teachers of ESL and other language translate the target language is the use of the third person pronoun appropriated so as to clarify and assure the gender of the pronoun.

In the case of denotation of the referent, the KSL learners often used appropriate pro-nouns, i.e, seonsaengnim (*teacher* in English) and hyeong (*elder brother* in English). In the use of the word hyeong, young children seemed to make no gender distinction between the two similar words hyeong and eonni. Originally, hyeong was used when a male person referred to his elder brother, and eonni when a female person referred to her elder sister. On the contrary, oppa (*elder brother* in English) is used where a female person refers to her elder brother, and noona (*elder sister* in English) when a male person refers to his elder sister. Young people in their teens and twenties use hyeong to refer to their seniors or strangers who look like they are of the similar age. Often in a society or club, the word hyeong is used by female youth to refer to seniors, or to indicate an intimate personal relatinship.

Cho(1982) has declared that if the referent is closely related to the addressee, the speaker refers to her or him deferentially. On the other hand, if the referent is more closely related to the speaker, the speaker humbles the referent just as she or he humbles herself or himself. As far as developmental aspects of the acquisition of personal pronoun was concerned, KSL learners tended to be slow in shifting the socially deictic center. Since deixis itself is "organized in an egocentric way"(Levinson, 1983, p. 63), social deictic expressions used by KSL learners were severely self-centered. The awareness of shifts of 'social center'(Levinson, 1983)' and point of view from the speaker to the referent of the addressee seem to be facilitated through interaction with adults. In the class lesson, the nature of the pseudo-communicative situation frequently emphasized expected contexts. Understanding the relationship between referents and speaker and between referents and addressee is closely related to the use of honorific concord. The awareness of the relationship between the speaker and the hearer according to social and family status was reflected by the use of vocatives.

2. USE OF VOCATIVES

In the classroom lesson, vocatives were frequently used by teachers in order to nominate the next speaker in turn-taking orders and by students in the case of asking questions. The vocative occurs in the sentence-initial position in most cases, but sometimes in the sentence-final position. The main function of the vocative is to get attention, to set up a conversational setting by expressing the speaker's assessment of the relative status between herself or himself and the addressee. In other words, vocatives function as a request to begin a conversation or as "pace-setters in a conversation, and as such appear in sentence-initial position" (Cho, 1982, p. 45). On the other hand, if vocatives come at the end of a sentence, they imply that "the conversational setting has already been established and the function of the vocative is primarily to make more intimate the speaker-addressee relationship"(Cho, 1982, p. 46).

The word used by KSL students in the case of calling their teacher was seonsaengnim. The title seonsaeng-nim originally denoted one's teacher and still is the word one obligatorily and commonly used in addressing one's teacher. The word seonsaengnim has "gained generic meaning and is widely used as a polite way of addressing adult males in general unless the addressee is in his early twenties, or carries a definite sign of having a very low-graded social status, or the situation/the dyad relationship or dictates that another term is more appropriate"(Hwang, 1975, p. 54). There seemed to be an age and pragmatic restriction in the use of seonsaengnim. School-aged KSL beginners before puberty frequently use the word seonsaengnim in a restricted manner to refer to their school teachers. Where they denote an adult who is not her or his school teacher, they usually use the kinship term azeossi (*uncle* in English), in place of seonsaengnim. During the observation period, subjects in this study never used the word seonsaengnim to denote the researcher, and always omitted vocatives in face-to-face conversations instead. The omission of vocatives seems to occur in informal or pragmatically available situations.

Another aspect in the use of vocatives by KSL learners was that they frequently followed the rules of their native language. That is, they frequently tended to omit vocative particles, which had interactional and utterance-filler functions. Cho(1982) has suggested that vocative particles "are present not mainly as markers of vocative sentences, as is commonly believed, but mainly as markers of the relative status between the speaker and the addressee"(p. 46). The use of vocative particles -a/-ya is "felicitous when the participants are equals, or when an adult addresses a young boy or girl. It is reciprocally used in the former case and asymmetrically used in the latter. Its reciprocal use is typical of child language or the language of adults who are childhood friends"(Cho, 1982, p. 49), and "-Ø/-i forms lack the endearing sense that the particles -a/-ya have, and they sound somewhat formal and aloof"(Cho, 1982, p. 50). However, such interpretations are not enough. Attention-getting devices and distance between the speaker and the hearer are also related to the use of particles, and phonological motivations are somewhat affect the use of particles. In terms of phonology, three syllables are general name systems of Korean people. Thus the following vocative particles are seldom heard: *Daniel-a*, *Daniel-i*; *Catherine-a*, *Catherine-i*.

When a person calls the name of a younger person in the distance, she or he usually uses the full name or adds the particle, for it is the motivation to identify the person more easily. Sometimes, -ya or -i has a phatic function or proximity filler. When a parent or elder sibling summons a young child in the distance, they usually use the particle. If a vocative has a pace-setter function, vocative particles accelerate its function. In some cases, to express an intimate relationship, or a gender register, particle yo or ya is sometimes added. In young children and female talk, the particle '-yo', or '-ye' may be used as:

Example 115: *(Tape #37, KSL)*

a) seonsaeng-nim-*yo*, b) seonsaeng-nim-*ye*

c) azeossi-*yo*, d) azeossi-*ye*

Note. These data were obtained from other students in KSL classes and from pilot studies.

These uses of particles seemed to increase intimacy, and in some provinces they are used in informal conversations. However, KSL beginners usually omitted these particles. In the classroom situation, there were many students in one place, so it was seldom necessary to call the long names with the added particles, either in a formal situation or in an informal situation. It seemed that in the classroom lesson simplicity of words was required in terms of economy.

As far as code-switching is concerned, D.J. Lee (1975) suggests that Korean immigrants in Hawaii use the English pronoun you whenever it is impossible to avoid using the second person pronoun, after living in a country with a different social structure. However, "language use may vary depending on the social structure in which it is being used" (Cho, 1982, p. 41) and contextual differences should be considered, in the sense that some newly-married young couples, who are educated, often use 'you' to denote the spouse in the presence of their parents or elder people to avoid some awkwardness.

3. HONORIFIC CONCORD

Brown & Levinson(1978) define honorifics as "direct grammatical encodings of relative social status between participants, or ~~between participants~~ and persons or things referred to in the communicative event"(p. 184). Cho(1982) has proposed a classification of the speech levels in the Korean language systems as follows:

		Formal	Informal
Deferential		(u)pnita (p)	(e)yo (Y)
Nondeferential	Marked	o (O)	ney (N)
	Unmarked	ta (T)	e (E)

(Cho, 1982, p. 87)

He also suggests that "the use of honorifics is closely tied to the deferential level, and the nondeferential marked level is different from the nondeferential unmarked in that it is only applicable to adult speakers when addressing grown-ups"(Cho, 1982, p. 87). In school age KSL learners' language, just like in child language, some greetings with ritualized forms were usually exchanged in the opening and closing of the class. Originally greetings are very sensitive to communicators, but in the class events teachers often used and taught the students a simplified form with no honorific terms.

Example 116: (*Tape #31, 32, & 36, KSL*)

a) *annyeong-hasi-pnikka?*
'How are you?' (Literally, 'Are you in peace?')
b) *annyeong-has(y)e(o)-yo?*
'How are you?'
c) *annyeong?*
'How are you?'

Example 116-a is the most deferential and so it is most appropriate when the addressee is the speaker's superior, and Example 116-b was the informal variant of Example 116-a and, as such, may be slightly less deferential than Example 116-a, but it is widely used among colleagues. Example 116-c is an innovation, and most likely, this form originated in child language(Cho, 1982). During the observation period, Example 116-a was used by researcher and in greetings between the teacher and researcher. Example 116-b was used mostly greeting between the teacher and students in informal and formal situations, and Example 116-c was used in greeting songs and in very informal situations.

The acquisition of KSL includes the grammar as well as the appropriateness of Korean language systems. As Hwang(1975) points out, all speech level markers in Korean are grammatical,—and the notion of speech levels implies more than pure grammaticality. This grammaticality is referred to as honorific concord. Honorific concord includes the agreement of relationships between the speaker and the addressee, between the speaker and the referent, and the addressee and the referent, and also involves the agreement of honorific morphemes or words in the lexicon which is usually expressed in the exalted or polite form.' Suh(1984) illustrates some honorific forms as follows:

> the honorific form of verbs in Korean is usually made by inserting the honorific verb marker SI into the verb (e.g., ka-nta - ka-si-nta), with a few exceptions, e.g., capswusita for meokta 'eat', cwumusita for zata 'sleep', etc. As a result of this verbal nonhonorification, triggered by the honorific subject, the whole sentence is rendered into honorific form for the purpose of showing deference to the subject(p. 235).

However, the use of honorific words and their concord can not satisfy the appropriateness of utterance to perform speech acts in conversational interactions. In order for conversations to flow smoothly, a sufficient condition should be added, because "the use of honorifics alone is a necessary but not sufficient condition, and that the use of honorifics plus the softened illocutionary force of a speech act constitute sufficient conditions"(Cho, 1982, p. 105). The following section will show an illustration of developmental aspect of honorific concord through the three stages in this study.

4. THE USE OF "KYESITA"

In Korean, issta is usually used in a neutral terms to describe the existence of an object and infrequently of a person. The term 'neutral' means that the state where speech level is not assigned. The term which expresses the existence of a person in honorifics is kyesita. The word kyesita refers to the expression including the referent honorifics. Suh(1984) suggests the relational use of two words as follows

iss+usi -> issusi
kyesi

The former is mainly used to refer to non-human objects, whereas the latter 'kyesi' is normally used to refer to the existence of a person.

Example 117:

1. kyochang sunsaengnim-i taek-e a. kyesipnita
b. ? issusipnita

2. sunsaengnim-un atunim-i taek-e a. kyesipnikka?
b. ? issusipnikka?

3. ton-i a. issusin pun-un sisichiyo
b. *kyesin

(Suh, 1984, p. 90)

Example 116 shows whether the expression is pragmatically appropriate or not. It is proper and appropriate to use 'kyesita' to refer to the existence of a specific person in respectful terms. However, according to the level of the addressee or the relations between/among the communicators and the referent, the word 'issta' is also used to refer to the existence of a person. For example:

Example 118: *(Tape #51 & 54, KSL)*

1. Teacher: [->student] *tongsaeng isseo?*

(DO YOU HAVE ANY YOUNGER BROTHER?)

2. Elderly person: *neo-uy hyeong (zip-e) isseo?*

(IS YOUR ELDER BROTHER AT HOME NOW?)

Pragmatically, 'kyesita' can be used to refer to other actions or aspects as well as the existence of a person.

Example 119: *(Tape #42, KSL)*

a, *annyunghi kyesipsiyo* 'Goodbye'

(Literally. Stay in peace)

b, *annyunghi * issusipsiyo*

c, *annyunghi kasipsiyo/*

Cho(1982) indicates that since it is the addressee's home base, the guest says 119-a first and then the host in return says 119-c.

Example 120: *(Tape #53, KSL)*

a, *chom teo kyesipsiyo* 'Stay a little longer'

b, *chom teo * isseusipsio*

c, *chamkan kyesipsiyo* 'Wait a moment'

The expression 120-a is used when a host asks a guest to stay a little longer at home if the guest feels comfortable, or other similar cases of requesting one to wait a little longer when a guest says: "I am leaving now." The expression 120-c indicates that at a store or on the telephone one party asks the other party to wait a moment till the addressee's request is fulfilled. Especially over the telephone it also means, "Hold on please".

Example 121: *(Tape #40, KSL)*

a. *apeozi-kkeseo ku chaek-ul ilko kyesyeoyo*

b. ? apeozi-ka ku chaek-ul ilko isseoyo

'My father is reading the book now'

The word 'kyesyeo' of Example 121-a functions as a progressive tense marker and refers to the kinship relation between the addressee and the referent. In this sense, the word 'kyesita' can be used as a progressive tense marker including honorifics. KSL learners' understanding and use of the word kyesita varied according to the context and the criterion of their interpretation of the term. The word kyesita includes spatial, temporal, and social deictic concept implicitly and explicitly. Examples 122, 123, and 124 below illustrate to what extent KSL learners develop deictic understanding through interactions. During the interviews, researcher constantly used the word kyesita.

Example 122: (*Tape #51, KSL*)

1st INTERVIEW

1 R: *halmeoni-nun kyesyeo?*	Do you have a grandmother?
2 S1: *halmeoni-nun isseo.*	I have a grandmother.
3 R: *eoti kyesyeo?*	Where does she live?
4 S1: *hana-nun* Vancouver-*e kyesi-ko hana-nun hankook-e.*	One lives in Vancouver, and the other is in Korea.

Example 123: (*Tape #52, KSL*)

2nd INTERVIEW

5 R: *halmeo-nun kyesyeo?*	Do you have a grandmother?
6 S1: *halmeoni an kyesyeoyo*	I have no grandmother (or My grandmother is not at home now).

Example 124: (*Tape #53, KSL*)

3rd INTERVIEW

7 R: *halmeoni-nun kyesyeo?*	Do you have a grandmother?
8 S1: *an kyesyeoyo*	She is not (at home)
9 R: *halapeozi-nun?*	Do you have a grandfather?
10 S1: *halapeozi-to an kyesyeoyo.*	He is not either.
11 R: *hankook-e kyesyeo? an kyesyeo?*	Are they in Korea or don't you have any grandparents?
12 S1: *hankook-e kyesyeoyo.*	They are in Korea.

Child S1 presupposed in the first conversation that the meaning of the question kyesyeo implied the question "do you have", and answered "I have a grandmother." In the second interviewing, S1 interpreted the question kyesyeo in terms of the 'here and now' principle and inferred "Is your grandmother (at home)?" because the interviewing occurred usually at home or because he thought the interviewer would know his home background and situation. As a result, he replied, "an kyesyeoyo" (*She is not at home now*). In the third interview, his presupposition was almost the same as in the second interviewing.

The use of the word kyesita varies according to the context and situation. When a guest asks "apeochi chip-e kyesyeo?", the question is usually interpreted the expression "Is your father at home now?", and the answer will be "ye, kyesyeoyo"(*Yes, he is in now* in English). On the other hand, when a stranger asks the same question, it is usually interpreted as "Do you have your father?" KSL learners seemed to learn the deictic concept in terms of the here and now at first and then acquire the various use of words at length. In other words, the process of SLA exhibited that pragmatic understanding and interpretation are usually prior to the assessment of grammaticality and the decomposition of semantic components. In addition, SL learners' language acquisition can be understood and interpreted in terms of communicative intention, utterance function, and the interactional context.

NOTE

1. Hwang(1975) proposes purely grammatical problems in Korean "such as using proper subject or object particle, proper tense markers, mood markers, and word order, etc."(p. 70).

2. Levinson(1983) assumes the deictic center to be (i) the central person is the speaker, (ii) the central time is the time at which the speaker produces the utterance, (iii) the central place is the speaker's location at utterance time, (iv) the discourse centre is the point which the speaker is currently at in the production of his utterance, and (v) the social centre is the speaker's social status and rank, to which the status or rank of addressees or referents is relative.

3. Suh(1984) suggests three categories of honorific morphemes or words: exalted forms, polite forms for the object person, and polite forms for the hearer. The exalted forms are used to exalt the referent that may stand for agent (subject), object or hearer and the respective things concerned. However, the exalted forms are used mostly for the agent or subject person.'

Chapter IX

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter summarizes the major findings and conclusions as well as the implications of the study. Some of the limitations that arose as the study progressed are also noted. A summary is provided of those findings which support some major conclusions of the study which have implications for the learning and teaching of second languages and implications for future research in SLA.

A. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

This study was based on the assumption that SL beginners' language development could be explained in terms of transactional processes among self, language and society. This study also postulated that pragmatic study be means of an ethnomethodological approach could help us understand the integrated processes of SL beginners' SLA. Since school-aged SL beginners usually learn the target language at school, the classroom was focused on as a speech situation where SL beginners meant to improve their communcative competence. In other words, the class was viewed as a speech event, a determinant, an independent variable of this SLA research. There were also interviews included to provide for speech events as face-to-face speech acts.

Both the three ESL and the three KSL beginners in this study were in the linguistically primitive stage and were not able to utter or speak what they intended to say or talk about. For these SL beginners, class lessons functioned as transactional, systematic speech events for SLA. Even though adult-like conversational skills seemed to improve through classroom interaction, the class did not fully function as an environment for promoting communicative competence. For example, the centripetal conversation system observed in this study induced a discontinuity of discourse and did not facilitate contextual or pragmatic understanding of the ongoing discourse.

Another example was that the SL beginners were considerably restricted in their utterances by the rigid, passive turn-getting situation. These SL beginners' creative thinking and holistic understanding were frequently interrupted by the teachers' turn-allocation sequences against the SL learners' communicative intention. Therefore, their linguistic and communicative alternatives were expressed according to class lesson events and the turn-taking motivations. The inharmony between interactional skills and acquiring contextual and academic information was explained as a cause of the unnaturalness of developmental sequences of communicative competence and performance.

In order to examine SL beginners' developmental aspect of SLA, this study involved participant observation and analyses of the SL beginners' utterances. By observing SL beginners and through analyses of their utterances, it was found that SL beginners' speech acts in active turn-taking situations reflected their communicative intentions and pragmatic understanding. Their utterances in the passive turn-getting appeared to be extremely restricted by the structure. To some extent the children were sensitive to the turn sequences and grammaticalness of their utterances. SL beginners' interactional aspects with turn systems could be summarized as shown in Table 14-1 and 14-2.

Table 14-1. Characteristics of one-word utterance stage

IN ACTIVE TURN-GETTING	IN PASSIVE TURN-TAKING
(1) Cooperativeness	(1) Lack of cooperativeness
(2) Expressiveness	(2) Silence, avoidance, negation, frequent reservedness
(3) Ego-centric tendency	(3) Ambiguous attitude
(4) Sensitive to speech acts	(4) Sensitive to environments
(5) Insensitive to teacher's feedback	(5) Sensitive to teacher's feedback
(6) Insensitive to peers' reaction	(6) Sensitive to peers' reaction
(7) Strong self-confidence	(7) Weak self-confidence
(8) Providing some information cues for peers	(8) Trying to get some information from peers or teachers
(9) Heuristic modification of input	(9) Verbatim utterance
(10) Simplified form	(10) Simplified form (often in an unclear voice)

Table 14-1 exhibits that SL beginners' strategies for SLA were more evoked by active turn-taking opportunities than by passive turn-getting chances.

Table 14-2. Characteristics of multi-word utterance stage

In Active Turn-getting	In Passive Turn-Getting
(1) Cooperativeness	(1) Lack of cooperativeness
(2) Competitiveness	(2) Lack of risk-taking
(3) Insensitive to environments and peers	(3) Sensitive to environments and peers
(4) Communicative function	(4) Referential function
(5) Concern about the use of language	(5) Concern about usage of language
(6) Active adjustment of language materials and input	(6) Mechanical mimicking of linguistic input
(7) Fewer errors	(7) False start, hesitation, mistakes
(8) Fewer use of discourse particles	(8) Frequent use of discourse particles

Table 14-2 reveals that characteristics of multi-word utterance stage are similar to those of one-word utterance stage in speech acts and SLA processes. By observing these SL children, their developmental aspects in SLA through classroom interactions were synthesized as follows:

(1) At the earlier stage, their lexical understanding tended to be ego-centric and controlled by here and now information, whereas at the later stage their inferences appeared to expand to discourse-level comprehension;

(2) In terms of negation development, the SL beginners seemed to use non-verbal, intrinsic, simple and elaborated negation in the process of SLA;

(3) KSL beginners' use of code-switching was performed, without the children being taught to use it, for communicating with participants whom they expected to know the two languages, whereas at later stages they

used code-switching so that their conversations could flow smoothly;

(4) SL beginners' phonological development shifted from diversified modification of input language to more narrowly defined categories although their discourse-level phonological development was affected by context and type of turn-taking;

(5) These beginners' deictic understanding developed slowly because of insufficient interaction with adult native speakers and because of lack of variety in the contextual situations for using the target language.

This study also analyzed SL beginners' errors in their utterances. Their errors were closely related to their strategic application and modification of input language. Their alternative use of words reflected these SL beginners' limited range of vocabulary, but their deletion and misapplication errors could be attributed to topicalization and focusing of the topic. At the primitive stage, the SL beginners in this study usually utilized a top-down or a bottom-up strategy in comprehension and production, with the direction being npredictable. In the case of a phrase, a sentence, and a discourse-level utterance, these SL beginners used chunking understanding for comprehension, and inversion for production. Their errors of inversion, deletion, misapplication, and inappropriate use were explained by psychological and pragmatic constraints. Therefore, their understanding of discourse and utterances involved the making of pragmatic inferences that first connected sound meanings with background information, and then conventional semantic information. In these SL beginners' production, it was found that their monotonous tones, and their misapplication of rising or falling intonation frequently occurred in context-free situations or in cases of insufficient pragmatic information or during unvolitional speech acts.

Finally, this study investigated two culturally different classrooms, one for ESL and one for KSL. Quantitative differences in the speech acts of these two classes were manifested by the different frequency of the SL beginners' turn-takings, and qualitative differences in speech acts of these SL beginners were related to the formality of lesson speech events. The formality increased SL beginners' passive turn-getting opportunities, and their passive participation in speech acts induced the utilization of referential functions of language rather than communicative functions. The KSL beginners' utterances which were grammatically correct but pragmatically deviant were observed in classroom situations and during the interviews. Personally and socially deictic terms and honorific concord should come with the grammatically correct utterances in the process of KSL acquisition. The formal learning of a SL in a classroom as a quasi-communicative situation did not facilitate these SL beginners' understanding of the cultural components of the second language, even though they knew or recognized the the relationships between hearers and speakers. Context-free pragmatic information as input to SL beginners did not appear to improve these SL beginners' pragmatic understanding any more than linguistic information. These aspects supported the notion that SL beginners' pragmatic understanding preceded their syntactic and phonological understanding.

B. CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

SL beginners' interactions with environmental factors were most saliently represented by the turn-taking systems in the classrooms observed. Classroom turn-taking organizations were operated and regulated by SL teachers' turn-allocation moves, and so SL beginners' turns during classroom discourse were not recursive in nature. In this situation, since SL beginners' communicative intentions were not fully incorporated by their speech acts, and their unvolitional speech acts were frequently forced, the turn-taking systmes during the class lessons did not promote SL beginners' communicative competence. Thus, class lesson were mainly concerned with instruction and regulatory functions of speech acts, and topic elements seemed to be context-free linguistic components. The pragmatic meaning of turn-taking systems in SLA processes was the SL beginners' understanding of the overall structure of a conversational activity. Nevertheless, simply understanding the structure did not contribute to the development of their conversational skills. Thus, it would be concluded that SL beginners' observance of the turn-taking system and awareness of the turn organization itself could not facilitate the acquisition of the target language. Neither did the topic elements presented to these beginning SL learners in this situation contribute to the development of their conversational techniques. These restrictive and teacher-centered centripetal turn systems during classroom conversations tended to induce SL beginners to engage in receptive learning of the target language. Their receptive learning, in turn, undermined their creative and holistic understanding of a SL during the classroom discourse.

The impact of insufficient conversational activities and scanty pragmatic information on SLA was reflected by these SL beginners' errors in comprehension and production. While traditional analyses of SL learners' errors are focused on the linguistic grammaticalness of words, phrases and sentences, this study analyzed the errors in the functional domain related to contextual use of the target language. These SL beginners' errors were a product of strategic application in various situations, and so were related to their pragmatic information. Their lexical misuse and syntactic errors were multi-directional, whereas their phonological errors showed a tendency to shift from split to merger strategies in segmental levels, and to be situational in discourse levels. Therefore, it was concluded that the linguistic input that are exposed to SL beginners seem to be a necessary condition for SLA and that their active interaction with language and context appears to be a sufficient condition for SLA and interlanguage development.

In addtion, the classification of traditional error analyses set the boundary of these SL beginners' errors, whereas the discourse-functional analysis provided for the reinterpretation of these SL learners' errors in discourse units and and accroding to contextual variables. Thus, it was also concluded that an integrated analysis and description of SL beginners' errors was significant to SLA studies, and was suggested that a study based on developmental pragmatics may have a more influential interpretive power than a linguistic-oriented analysis.

This study also investigated beginning SL learners' understanding of the relationship between communicators in relation to their cultural differences. These SL learners' awareness of unequal power relationships between teachers and students increased the formality of the classroom learning environment, but it did not promote the expansion of languge use.

The KSL beginners' use of code-switching was based on their mutual understanding of the linguistic and cultural background of the SL beginners and others. The KSL children's use of code-switching was not taught by their classroom teachers, nor did these children recognize the existence of a code-switching grammar. Moreover, these KSL beginners frequently engaged in code-switching when they were not able to find out an appropriate expression in the target language but they had communicative intention. Therefore, it was concluded that the use of code-switching could improve SL beginners' communicative competence, whether or not the expressions were grammatically correct.

Beginning KSL learners' use and misuse of personal deictic terms and honorific expressions showed evidence that cultural differences affected to some extent their pragmatic understanding, and pragmatic understanding could be developed through their real interactions. The extension of these KSL beginners language use from ego-centric to reciprocal or mutual understanding and self-identity was made possible by means of interactional processes, not by dint of the comprehensible input itself. In this sense, it may be concluded that SL beginners' pragmatic understanding broadened these children's intellectual and linguistic information base, and that the SL beginners' context-free language learning did not help their cultural understanding and intellectual development. It was also concluded that these SL beginners' classroom learning experience with the target language did not contribute to the improvement of their pragmatic understandings, nor their linguistic competence.

C. IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY

Several implications arose from the findings and conclusions of this study. This section presents some implications for SL learning, for SL teaching and for education.

1. IMPLICATIONS FOR SL LEARNING

This study indicated that classroom discourse is characterized by speech acts between unequal persons, teachers and pupils. This inequality results in the receptive learning of a SL and also restricts the situational contexts for SLA. The limitations on contexts deprived SL beginners' opportunities to take turns in the classroom conversations and weakened their communicatie intention. These aspects imply that receptive learning does not contribute to the various uses of the target language, and classroom conversational contexts need to be maximized and appreciated by active turn-taking motivation. SLA should be accompanied by conversational skills, so long as communicative competence is to develop.

This study suggested that risk-taking and competitiveness could be, to some extent, helpful for SLA, because SL beginners' active participation in conversations often reflected their initiative as expressed by their active turn-taking. SL teachers' unequal distribution of turns can be compensated by their active turns. Therefore, what is implied is that risk-taking and competitiveness can promote SL beginners' creative thinking and productive learning of the target language.

The findings of this study suggest that SL beginners' comprehension and production strategies come with pragmatic understanding. The application of strategies for comprehension and production in this study implies that a SL is attainable through opportunities for strategic thinking for comprehension and production. Beginning SL learners' communicative and learning strategies can broaden and deepen their linguistic information, and classroom input materials with pragmatic information can help these learners achieve real comprehension. In particular, SL beginners' diversified strategies for production imply that individualized learning should be guided by the teacher to help ensure that SL beginners develop their production skills.

2. IMPLICATIONS FOR SL TEACHING

Teaching is not synonymous with leadership, even though teachers cannot escape the fact that they have position power(Fiedler, 1967). The SL classroom is a field where SL beginners and SL teachers interact. The findings of this study imply that SL beginners' transaction with others and context should be a primary concerns and that SL teaching should be aimed at the teaching or education of the whole child. SL teaching should not be contrived to the delivery of linguistic components to be learned out of contexts by SL learners. What is implied is that SL teaching based on humanistic approaches will accomplish more. Browne(1971) also reported that "interaction within the reading group was restricted by the class seating arrangement" (p. 443). Her suggestion emphasizes interactional functions of class lessons.

The discourse-functional analysis showed that SL beginners' errors were related to pragmatic information, and implies that errors should be explaind and interpreted according to the children's pragmatic understanding because context-free linguistic data are separated from SL beginners' contextual uses. Understanding their errors for SL teaching must be accessible when it is pursued in terms of appropriateness for contexutual use rather than grammaticalness of their utterances.

This study also indicated that SL beginners' discourse strategies were multi-directional and context-bound according to their pragmatic information. These variables are related to individual differences as well. Individual differences in SL learning and teaching imply that SL teaching should be directed toward individualization and self-directed learning. It is also implied that SL teaching should be guided to self-actualization through SL learning.

Beginning KSL learners' misuse of deictic terms was affected by their insufficient interaction with other native speakers who were culturally different. What was found in this study implies that SL beginners' cultural understanding should come prior to linguistic information and pragmatic information should be connected with society and culture, and so SL teaching should involve teaching the second culture.

3. IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION

SL teaching methods have been affected by philosophical thinking about curriculum and education in general. This study criticizes some of mechanisms of classroom education and its structural approaches for SL learning. The ethnomethodological approaches in this study were aimed at the investigation and interpretation of SL beginners' learning processes, and it was argued that superficial obsrvation and statistical interpretation cannot always get at SL beginners' reality and their meanings. In this sense, the study implies that methodologically, curriculum, education and their meanings should be understood from an integrated, and critical viewpoint.

This study focused on SL beginners rather than teachers. This emphasis on SL beginners implies that education in the classroom or schooling should be directed toward learner-centered approaches. This also implies that curriculum and education should be implemented through interaction among teachers and students, and that the language used in the classroom be a means of instructional purpose, but also for communication and mutual understanding.

4. FURTHER LIMITATIONS ON THE FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY

The findings and conclusions of this study must always be interpreted within the limitations of the ethnomethodolgical approach and in the case the population studied. Furthermore, several limitations arose during the conduct of this study which also limit the generalizability of the study. This study investigated six SL beginners within two culturally different classroom which also differed in number of students and progressed space. The sample consisted of one group of two boys and one girl, and one group of three boys. The gender issue must be considered as a limitation that affected to generalizability of the result of the study. Other limitations were related to differences in other environmental factors which might have influenced the children's specific responses in this study. There were also limitations arising from categorization and interpretation procedures since the analyses may have produced different results if a different approach to the study had been taken.

5. IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study suggested the emerging importance of an integrated approach to an understanding of the process of SLA. Methodologically, this study shows that it would be necessary and significant to apply diverse methods in SLA research, and that the interpretations would affect the real understanding of the developmental aspects of SLA. This statement implies that studies of SLA in a classroom need to involve interdisciplinary methods and that such studies would make real contribution to our understanding of SL teaching.

This study was partly based on the analyses of the developmental pragmatics of SL beginners. What is needed is that studies of intermediate or advanced SL learners be done. In addition, age differences and gender differences in SLA processes need to be investigated in terms of developmental pragmatics as well.

This study focused on dyad communication, but differences in language use in dyads from triads or more need also to be observed and examined. Speech acts during small group and large group communication setting will reveal much about the nature of the classroom as a SLA environment.

This study pointed out some interactional aspects of the linguistic components such as morphosyntactic, phonological and deictic, of the SL learners observed. In the functional domain, discourse factors interacting with the syntactic characterization can be described and interpreted in the discourse component of grammar. This study has left the grammaticalness of code-switching unsolved. It is necessary to encourage further studies of code-switching and its impacts on SLA.

This study presented some relations between pragmatics and phonology, and implies that studies of discourse phonology in SLA are in their infancy, and phonological understanding in the discourse analysis and conversational analysis is very important, especially in SLA processes.

In conclusion, it might be argued that this study has only raised questions that need to be addressed if we are to significantly improve SLA in those classroom contexts that are the main SLA world of school-aged SL learners.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abbott, G. (1980). Towards a more rigorous analysis of foreign language errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 18*, 121-134.

Acton, W. R. (1983). Second language interpersonal communication: paradigm and praxis. *Language Learning, 33*, 193-216.

Agar, M. H. (1980). *The professional stranger: An informal introduction to ethnography*. New York: Acedemic Press.

Akmajian, A., Demers, R., & Harnish, R. (1984). *Linguistics: An introduction to language and communication*. Cambridge, Mass.: The MIT Press.

Allwright, R. (1980). Turns, topics, and tasks: Patterns of participation in language learning and teaching. In D. Larsen-Freeman (Ed.), *Discourse analysis in second language acquisition* (pp. 165-187). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Arthur, B., Weiner, R., Culver, M., Lee, Y. J., & Thomas, D. (1980). The register of impersonal discourse to foreigners: Verbal adjustments to foreign accent. In D. Larsen-Freeman (Ed.), *Discourse analysis in second language acquisition* (pp. 111-124). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Asher, J. (1969). The total physical response approach to second language learning. *Modern Language Journal, 53*, 3-17.

Atkinson, M. (1982). *Explanations in the study of child language development*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. London: Oxford University Press.

Ausubel, D. (1968). *Educational psychology: A cognitive view*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Avery, P., Ehrlich, S., & Yorio, C. (1985). Prosodic domains in foreigner talk discourse. In S. M. Gass & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 214-229). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Bach, K., & Harnish, R. M. (1979). *Linguistic communication* *and speech acts*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Bailey, K. M. (1983). Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning: Looking *at* and *through* the diary studies. In H. W. Seliger & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition* (pp. 67-103). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Bain, B. (Ed.). (1983). *The sociogenesis of language and human conduct*. New York: Plenum.

Barlund, D. (1968). *Interpersonal communication*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Barlund, D. (1974). Toward a meaning-centered philosophy of communication. In K.G. Johnson, J. J. Senatore, M. C. Liebig & G. Minor (Eds.), *Nothing never happen* (pp. 211-215). Beverly Hills: Glencoe Press.

Bates, E. (1974). Acquisition of pragmatic competence. *Journal of Child Language, 1*, 277-281.

Bates, E. (1976). *Language and context: The acquisition of pragmatics*. New York: Academic Press.

Bates, E., Camaioni, L., & Volterra, V. (1979). The acquisition of performatives prior to speech. In E. Ochs & B. Schieffelin(Eds.), *Developmental pragmatics* (pp. 111-128). New York: Academic Press.

Bates, E. & MacWhinney, B. (1979). The functionalist approach to the acquisition of grammar. In E. Ochs & B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *Developmental Pragmatics* (pp. 167-211). New York: Academic Press.

Bell, R. (1974). *Error analysis: A recent pseudoprocedure in applied linguistics. ITL Review of Applied Linguistics, 25/26*, 35-51.

Bell, R. T. (1976). *Sociolinguistics, goals, approaches and problems*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Bernstein, B. (1964). Elaborated and restricted codes: their social origins and some consequences. In J. J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *The ethnography of communication. American Anthropologist, 66, 6(2)*, 55-69.

Bernstein, B. (1971). *Class, codes and control*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Bever, T., Garrett, M., & Hurtig, R. (1973). The interaction of perceptual processes and ambiguous sentences. *Memory and Cognition, 1*, 277-286.

Bickerton, D. (1981). Discussion of 'Two perspectives on pidginization as second language acquisition'. In R. W. Anderson (Ed.), *New dimensions in second language acquisition research*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Blom, J., & Gumperz, J. J. (1972). Social meaning in linguistic structures: code-switching in Norway. In J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in sociolinguistics: The ethnography of communication* (pp. 407-435). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Bloom, L., Lightbown, P., & Hood, L. (1978). Pronominal-nominal variation in child language. In L. Bloom (Ed.), *Language development*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Bowers, J. W., & Courtright, J. A. (1984). *Communication research methods*. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman.

Brazil, D. (1985). Phonology: Introduction in discourse. In T. A. Van Dijk (Ed.), *Handbook of discourse analysis* (Vol. 2), (pp. 57-75). Orlando, Flor.: Academic Press.

Breen, M., & Candlin, C. (1981). *The communicative curriculum in Language Teaching*. London:

Brooks, W. D., & Emmert, P. (1980). *Interpersonal communication* (2nd ed.). Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown.

Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, H. D. (1980). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1978). Universals in language usage: politeness phenomena. In E. Goody (Ed.), *Questions and politeness: Strategies in soical interaction* (pp. 56-311). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, R. C. (1973). *A first language: The early Stages*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Brown, R. (1977). Introduction. In C. Snow & C. Ferguson (Eds.), *Talking to children*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Browne, M. P. (1971). *An exploratory study of teacher-pupil verbal interaction in primary reading groups*. Ph. D. Dissertation. University of Alberta.

Bruner, J. S. (1975). The ontogenesis of speech acts. *Journal of Child Language, 2,* 1-20.

Bruner, J. (1983). *Child's talk: Learning to use language.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Burt, M., & Dulay, H. (1980). On acquisition orders. In S. Felix (Ed.), *Second language development: Trends and issues.* Tübingen.

Cancino, H., Rosansky, E., & Schumann, J. (1978). The acquisition of English negatives and interrogatives by native Spanish speakers. In E. Hatch (Ed.), *Second language acquisition* (pp. 207-230). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Cazden, C. B. (1972). *Child language and education.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Cazden, C. B. (1983). Peekaboo as an instructional model: Discourse development at home and at school. In B. Bain (Ed.), *The Sociogenesis of language and human conduct* (pp. 33-58). New York: Plenum Press.

Chafe, W. (1976). Givenness, contrastiveness, definiteness, subjects, topics, and point of view. In C. Li (Ed.), *Subject and topic.* New York: Academic Press.

Chaudron, C. (1983). Foreigner talk in the classroom - An aid to learning? In W. Herbert, H. Seliger & M. Long (Eds.), *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition* (pp. 127-145). Rowley: Newbury House.

Cheun, S. B. (1980). *Saengseong umwoonlon* [Generative phonology]. Seoul: Tap.

Cho, C. H. (1982). *A study of Korean pragmatics: deixis and politeness.* Seoul: Hanshin.

Chomsky, N. (1959). Review of Skinner's verbal behavior. *Language, 35,* 26-58.

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax.* Camridge: MIT Press.

Cicourel, A. V. (1973). *Cognitive sociology.* London: Penguin.

Clark, H. H., & Clark, E. V. (1977). *Psychology and language: An introduction to psycholinguistics.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Cole, P., & Morgan, J. (Eds.). (1975). *Speech acts, syntax and semantics* (Vol. 3). New York: Academic Press.

Corder, S. P. (1971). Idiosyncratic dialects and error analysis. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 9,* 147-160.

Corder, S. P. (1973). *Introducing applied linguistics.* Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Corder, S. P. (1981). *Error analysis and interlanguage.* London: Oxford University Press.

Coulthard, M. (1977). *An introduction to discourse analysis.* London: Longman.

Curran, C. A. (1972). *Counseling-learning: A whole person model for education.* New York: Grune & Stratton.

Dance, F. E., & Larson, C. E. (1972). *Speech communication: Concepts and behavior.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1974). A new perspective on the creative constructive process in child second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 24,* 253-278.

Dulay, H., Burt, M., & Krashen, C. (1982). *Language two.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Edelsky, C. (1981). Who's got the floor? *Language in Society, 10,* 383-421.

Edwards, A. D. (1976). Speech codes and speech variants: social class and talk differences in chidlren's speech. *Journal of Child Language, 3/4,* 247-265.

Edwards, J. R. (1979). *Language and disadvantage.* London: Edward Arnold.

Ervin-Tripp, S. (1974). Is second language like the first? *TESOL QUARTERLY, 8,* 111-127.

Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (1984). Two ways of defining communication strategies. *Language Learning, 34,* 45-63.

Fathman, A. K. (1975). The relationship between age and second language productive ability. *Language Learning, 25,* 245-253.

Felix, S. (Ed.). (1980). *Second language development: Trends and issues.* Tübingen.

Felix, S. (1981). The effect of formal instruction on second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 31,* 87-112.

Fiedler, F. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness.*

New York: McGraw-Hill.

Fillmore, L. W. (1979). Individual differences in second language acquisition. In C. J. Fillmore & W. S. Y. Wang (Eds.), *Individual differences in second language ability and language behavior*. New York: Academic Press.

Fodor, J. A. (1975). *The language and thought*. New York: Crowell.

Fowler, R. (1966). Linguistic theory and the study of literature. In his (Ed.), *Essays on style and language*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Fries, C. (1945). *Teaching and learning English as a second language*. Michigan: Ann Arbor.

Garfinkel, H. (1967). *Studies in ethnomethodology*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Garfinkel, H. (1972). Remarks on ethnomethodology. In J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in sociolinguistics* (pp. 301-324). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Garfinkel, H. (1975). The origins of the term 'Ethnomethodology.' In S. R. Turner (Ed.), *Ethnomethodology: selected readings* (pp. 15-18). Aylesburg, Bucks: Hazell Watson & Viney.

Garvey, C. (1984). *Children's talk*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Givón, T. (1979). From discourse to syntax: grammar as a processing strategy. In T. Givón(Ed.), *Syntax and semantics* (vol. 12), *Discourse syntax*. New York: Academic Press.

Givón, T. (1984). *Syntax: A functional-typological introduction* (Vol. 1). Philadelpia: John Benjamins.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *A discovery of grounded theory*. Chicago: Aldine.

Goffman, E. (1976). Replies and responses. *Language in Society, 5*, 257-315.

Goffman, E. (1981). *Forms of talk*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Greenfield, P. M. (1979). Informativenes, presupposition, and semantic choice in single-word utterances. In E. Ochs & B. Schieffelin (Eds.) *Developmental pragmatics* (pp. 159-166). New York: Academic Press.

Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics* (Vol. 3), *Speech acts*. New York: Academic Press.

Gumperz, J. J. (1985). *Discourse strategies*. Cambridge, Mass.: Cambridge University Press.

Gumperz, J. J., & Cook-Gumperz, J. (1982). Introduction: Language and the communication of social identity. In J. J. Gumperz (Ed.), *Language and social identity*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Hakuta, K., & Cancino, H. (1977). Trends in second-language acquisition research. *Educational Review, 47*, 294-316.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1974). The context of linguistics. In F. P. Dinneen (Ed.), *Linguistics: Teaching and interdisciplinary relations* (pp. 179-197). Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics 1974. Washington, D. C.: Georgetown University Press.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1975). *Learning how to mean: Explorations in the development of language*. New York: Elsevier.

Hatch, E. (1978). Discourse analysis and second language acquisition. In E. Hatch (Ed.), *Second language acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Hatch, E. (1983). *Psycholinguistics: A second language perspective*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Hatch, E. & Long, M. (1980). Discourse analysis, what's that? In D. Larsen-Freeman(Ed.), *Discourse analysis in second language research* (pp. 1-40). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Heath, S. B. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life, and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hildyard, A., & Olson, D. R. (1978). Memory and inference in the comprehension of oral and written discourse. *Discourse Processes, 1*, 91-117.

Huebner, T. (1983). Linguistic systems and linguistic change in an interlanguage. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 3, 2*, 33-53.

Hwang, J. R. (1975). *Role of sociolinguistics in foreign language education with reference to Korean and English terms of address and levels of deference* (University of Texas at Austin). Seoul: Tap.

Hymes, D. (1969). *Linguistic theory and the functions of speech*. International Days in Sociolinguistics. Rome (September 1969).

Hymes, D. (1972). Models of the interaction of language and social life. In J. J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in sociolinguistics* (pp. 35-71). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Hymes, D. (1979). On communicative competence. In C. J. Brumfit & K. Johnson (Eds.) *The communicative approach to language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jakobson, R. (1968). *Child language, aphasia, and phonological universals*. Mouton, The Hague.

John-Steiner, V., & Tatter, P. (1983). An interactionist model of language development. In B. Bain (Ed.), *The Sociogenesis of language and human conduct* (pp. 79-98). New York: Plenum Press.

Johnson, N. S. (1983). What do you do if you can't tell the whole story? The development of summarization skills. In K. E. Nelson (Ed.), *Children's language* (Vol. 4) (pp. 315-383). Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Joos, M. (1967). *The five clocks*. New York: Harcourt Brace and World.

Karttunen, L. (1974). Presupposition and linguistic context. *Theoretical Linguistics, 1*, 3-44. Reprinted in A. Rogers, B. Wall & J.P. Murphy (Eds.), Proceedings of the Texas Conference on Performatives, Presuppositions and Implicatures. 149-160. Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics (1977).

Katz, J. J. (1977). *Propositional structure and illocutionary force*. New York: Crowell.

Keller-Cohen, D., Chalmer, K., & Remler, J. (1979). The development of discourse negation in the nonnative child. In E. Ochs & B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *Developmental pragmatics* (pp. 305-324). New York: Academic Press.

Kim, S. D. (1983). Hankookeo poozeongpeope taehayeo (On negatives in Korean). In K. S. Nam, Y. K. Koh, & Y. S. Lee (Eds.), *Hyeontae kookeo moonpeop* (Modern Korean grammar) (pp. 226-237). Taekoo: Kyemyeong University Press.

Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. New York: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S, D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second* *language acquisition*. New York: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. D. (1983). Second language acquisition theory and the preparation of teachers: toward a rationale. In J. E. Alatis, H. H. Stern & P. Strevens (Eds.), *Applied linguistics and the preparation of second language teachers: Toward a rationale. GURT '83*, 255-263.

Krashen, S. D., & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The natural approach*. California: The Alemany Press.

Kumpf, L. (1984). Temporal systems and universality in interlanguage: a case study. In F. Eckman, L. Bell & D. Nelson (Eds.), *Univesals of second language acquisition* (pp. 132-143). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Labov, W. (1966). *The social stratification of English in New York City*. Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures*. Michigan: Ann Arbor.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (Ed.). (1980). *Discourse analysis in second language research*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Lee, D. J. (1975). Some problems in learning Korean second person pronouns. In Ho-Min Sohn (Ed.), *The Korean language: Its structure and social projections*. University of Hawaii Center for Korean Studies.

Lee, M. S. (1973). Variation of speech levels and interpersonal social relationship in Korean. *Lee Chong-Soo paksa songsoo kinyeom nonchong* [In honor of Dr. Lee, Chong-Soo on his sixtieth birthday], (pp. 109-142). Seoul: Samhwa.

Leiter, K. (1980). *A Primer on Ethnomethodology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Leonard, L., Newhoff, M., & Mesalam, L. (1980). Individual differences in early child phonology. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 1*, 7-30.

Levinson, S. C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lewis, D. (1969). *Convention*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Lewis, M., & Cherry, L. (1977). Social behavior and language acquisition. In M. Lewis & L. Rosenblum (Eds.), *Interaction, Conversation, and the Development of Language* (pp. 227-247). New York: Wiley.

Littlejohn, S. W. (1983). *Theories of Human Communication* (2nd ed.). Belmont, Cal.: Wadsworth.

Lofland, J. (1971). *Analyzing Social Settings*. Belmont, Ca.: Wadsworth.

Long, M. H. (1980). *Input, interaction and second language acquisition*. Ph. D. dissertation. UCLA.

Long, M. H. (1981). Input, interaction, and second language acquisition. In H. Winitz (Ed.), *Native Language and Foreign Language Acquisition*. New York: The New York Academy of Science.

Long, M. H. (1983a). Inside the "Black Box": methodological issues in classroom research on language learning. In H. Seliger & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 3-38). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Long, M. H. (1983b). Linguistic and conversational adjustments to non-native speakers. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 5, 2,* 177-193.

Long, M. H. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Long, M., & Sato, C. (1984). Methodological issues in interlanguage studies: an interactionist perspective. In A. Davis, C. Criper & A. Howatt (Eds.), *Interlanguage*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Lozanov, G. (1979). *Suggestology and outlines of suggestopedia*. New York: Gordon and Brech Science.

Luft, J. (1969). *Of human interaction*. Palo Alto, Calif.: Mayfield.

Lyons, J. (1977). *Semantics* (Vols. 1 & 2). Cambridge, Mass.: Cambridge University Press.

Mannheim, K. (1952). *Essays on the sociology of knowledge*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Masterson, J. T., Beebe, S. A., & Watson, N. H. (1983). *Speech communication: Theory and practice*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

McLaughlin, B. (1978). The monitor model : some methodological considerations. *Language Learning, 28,* 309-332.

McLaughlin, B. (1981). Differences and similarities between first- and second-language learning. In H. Wintz (Ed.), *Native language and foreign language acquisition*. New York: The New York Academy of Science.

McLaughlin, B., Rossman, T., & McLeod, B. (1983). Second language learning: An information-processing perspective. *Language Learning, 33*, 135-158.

McLaughlin, M. L. (1984). *Conversation: How talk is organized*. Sage Series in interpersonal communication (Vol. 3). London: Sage.

McLean, J. E. & Snyder-McLean, L. K. (1978). *A transactional approach to early language training*. Columbus, Ohio: A Bell & Howell Charles E. Merril.

McTear, M. F. (1985). *Children's conversation*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Mehan, H. (1977). Ethnography. *Bilingual Education: Current Perspectives* (pp. 73-89). Social Science. Arliilngton, Va.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Mehan, H. (1978). Structuring school structure. *Harvard Educational Review, 48(1)*, 32-64.

Mehan, H. (1985). The structure of classroom discourse. In T. A. Van Dijk (Ed.), *Handbook of discourse analysis* (Vol 3), (pp. 120-131). Orlando, Flor.: Academic Press.

Morgan, J. L. (1978). Two types of convention in indirect speech acts. In P. Cole & J. Morgan (Eds.) *Pragmatics* (Vol. 9 of Syntax and Semantics). New York: Academic Press.

Nemser, W. (1971). Approximative systems of foreign language learners. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 9*, 115-123.

Ochs, E. (1979a). Introduction: What child language can contribute to pragmatics. In E. Ochs & B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *Developmental pragmatics* (pp. 1-17). New York: Academic Press.

Ochs, E. (1979b). Transcription as theory. In E. Ochs & B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *Developmental pragmatics* (pp. 43-72). New York: Acedemic Press.

Ochs, E., & Schieffelin, B. (Eds.). (1979). *Developmental pragmatics*. New York: Academic Press.

Ochs, E. & Shieffelin, B. (1984). Language acquisition and socialization: three developmental stories and their implications. In R. A. Shweder & R. A. LeVine (Eds.), *Culture theory* (pp. 276-320). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ochs, E., Schieffelin, B., & Platt, M. (1979). Propositions across utterances and speakers. In E. Ochs & B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *Developmental pragmatics* (pp. 251-268). New York: Academic Press.

Oller, Jr., J. W. (1973). Some psycholinguistic controversies. In J. W. Oller, Jr. & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Focus on the learner: Pragmatic perspectives for the language teacher*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Pae, D. B. (1984). *A study on English learning materials.* Unpublished MA thesis. Seoul: Seoul National University.

Pae, D. B. (1985). *Phonological development of Korean children in Canada*. Paper presented to Canadian Learned Societies.

Park, S. H. (1983). Kookeo-ui cheoptoo poozeongsoh (Prefix constituents of negatives in Korean). In K. S. Nam, Y. K. Koh & Y. S. Lee (Eds.), *Hyeontae kookeo moonpeop* (Modern Korean grammar) (pp. 213-225). Taekoo: Kyemyeong University Press.

Philips, S. U. (1983). *The invisible culture: Communication in classroom and community on the Warm Springs Indian reservation*. New York: Longman.

Piaget, J. (1977). *The grasp of consciousness.* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Piaget, J. (1978). *Success and understanding.* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Pickering, W. (1980). *A framework for discourse analysis.* The Summer Institute of Linguistics and the University of Texas at Arlington.

Politzer, R. L., Ramirez, A. G., & Lewis, S. A. (1981). Teaching standard English in the third grade: classroom functions of language. *Language Learning, 31*, 171-193.

Prince, E. F. (1981). Toward a taxonomy of given-new information. In P. Cole (Ed.), *Radical pragmatics.* New York: Academic Press.

Quirk, R., & Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A concise grammar of contemporary English.* New York: Harcourt Brace, Jovanovich.

Reynolds, P. D. (1971). *A primer in theory construction.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merril.

Richards, J. (1977). *Error Analysis*. London: Longman.

Richards, J. C. (1985). *The context of language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rommetveit, R. (1968). *Words, meanings, and messages: Theory and experiments in psycholinguistics*. New York: Academic Press.

Ross, J. R. (1967). *Constraints on variables in syntax*. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Linguistic Club.

Rubin, J. (1975). What the 'good language learner' can teach us. *TESOL QUARTERLY, 9*, 41-51.

Rubin, J. (1981). Study of cognitive processes in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 2*, 117-131.

Rutherford, W. (1982). Markedness in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 32*, 85-108.

Sacks, H. (1972). On the analyzability of stories by children. In J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in sociolinguistics*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & Jefferson, G. (1974). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking in conversation. *Language, 50, 4*, 695-735.

Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & Jefferson, G. (1978). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking in conversation. In J. Schenkein (Ed.), *Studies in the organization of conversational interaction* (pp. 7-55). New York: Academic Press.

Sato, C. J. (1984). Phonological processes in second language acquisition: another look at syllable structure. *Language Learning, 34(4)*, 43-57.

Sato, C. J. (1985). Task variation in interlanguage phonology. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Issues in second language research* (pp. 181-196). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Schachter, J. & Rutherford, W. (1979). Discourse function and language transfer. *Working Papers on Bilingualism, 19*, 1-12.

Schegloff, E. A. (1968). Sequencing in conversational openings. *American Anthropologist, 70*, 1075-1095.

Schegloff, E. A. (1972). Sequencing in conversational openings. In J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in* *sociolinguistics* (pp. 346-380). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Schegloff, E., Jefferson, G., & Sacks, H. (1977). The prefernence for self-correction in the organization of repair in conversation. *Language, 53*, 361-382.

Schegloff, E., & Sacks, H. (1973). Opening up closings. *Semiotica, 8*, 289-327.

Schieffelin, B. B. (1979). Getting it together: An anthropologic approach to the study of the development of communicative competence. In E. Ochs & Schieffelin, B. (Eds.), *Developmental pragmatics* (pp. 73-108). New York: Academic Press.

Schlesinger, I. M. (1982). *Steps to language*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Schmidt, R. W. (1981). Interaction, acculturation and the acquisition of communicative competence: A case study of an adult. *UH Working Papers in Linguistics 13, 3*, 29-77.

Schubert, J. (1983). The implications of Luria's theories for cross-cultural research on language and intelligence. In B. Bain (Ed.), *The sociogenesis of language and human conduct* (pp. 59-78). New York: Plenum Press.

Schwartz, J. (1980). Negotiation for meaning: repair in conversations between second language learners of English. In D. Larsen-Freeman (Ed.), *Discourse analysis in second language research* (pp. 138-153). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech acts*. Cambridge, Mass.: Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. R. (1975). Indirect speech acts. In P. Cole & J. Morgan (Eds.), *Speech acts, syntax and semantics* (Vol. 3). New York: Academic Press.

Searle, J. R. (1976). The classification of illocutionary acts. *Language in Society, 5(1)*, 1-24.

Seliger, H. W. (1983). Learner interaction in the classroom and its effects on language acquisition. In H. Seliger & M. Long (Eds.), *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition* (pp. 246-267). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Seliger, H. W. (1984). Processing universals in second language acquisition. In F. R. Eckman, L. H. Bell & D. Nelson (Eds.), *Universals of second language acquisition* (pp. 36-47). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Seliger, H. W., & Long, M. H. (Eds.) (1983). *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 10*, 219-231.

Selinker, L., & Lamendella, J. (1979). The role of extrinsic feedback in interlanguage fossilization. *Language Learning, 29*, 363-376.

Sharwood-Smith, M. (1979). Strategies, language transfer and simulation of the second language learner's mental operations. *Language Learning, 29*, 345-362.

Sharwood-Smith, M. (1981). *On interpreting language input*. Paper presented at Lancaster Conference on Interpretive Strategies. Lancaster University.

Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, R. M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by Teachers and Pupils*. London: University of Cambridge.

Skinner, B. F. (1957). *Verbal Behavior*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Slobin, D. I. (1979). *Psycholinguistics*. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foreman & Co.

Smith, N. (1973). *The acquisition of phonology: A case study*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Snow, C. (1977). The development of conversations between mothers and babies. *Journal Child Language, 4(1)*, 1-22.

Spolsky, B. (1966). A psycholinguistic critique of programmed foreign language instruction. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 4*, 119-129.

Spradley, J. P. (1980). *Participant observation*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Stenson, N. (1971). Induced errors. In J. Schumann & N. Stenson (Eds.), *New frontiers of second language larning* (pp. 55-69). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Stevick, E. W. (1976). *Memory, meaning, and method*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Stevick, E. W. (1984). Memory, learning and acquisition. In F.R. Eckman, L.H. Bell & D. Nelson (Eds.), *Universals of* *second language acquisition*(pp. 24-35). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Stubbs, M. (1983). *Discourse Analysis.* Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Suh, J. S. (1984). *Chontaepeop-ui yeonkoo: Hyeonhaeng taewoopeop-ui chekyewa moonjezeom* [A study of honorifics: Systems and problems of current deference]. Seoul: Hanshin.

Sung, K. C. (1985). Speech levels and formality of the Korean language. *Linguistic Journal of Korea, 10, 1,* 143-170.

Tarone, E. A. (1979). Interlanguage as chamelon.*Language Learning, 29,* 181-191.

Tarone, E. A. (1980). Communication strategies, foreigner talk and repair in interlanguage. *Language Learning, 30,* 417-432.

Tarone, E. A. (1984). On the variability of interlanguage system. In F.R. Eckman, L. H. Bell & D. Nelson (Eds.), *Universals of second language acquisition* (pp. 3-23). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Taylor, B. (1975). The use of overgeneralization and transfer learning strategies by elementary and intermediate students of ESL. *Language Learning , 25,* 73-107.

Terrell, T. D. (1977). A natural approach to second language acquisition and learning. *Modern Language Journal, 61,* 325-336.

Titone, R. (1983). Second language learning: An integrated psycholinguistic model. In B. Bain (Ed.), *The sociogenesis of language and human conduct* (pp. 273-286). New York: Plenum. Tubbs, S. L. & Moss, S. (1983). *Human communication.* New York: Random House.

Van Els, T., Bongaerts, T., Extra, G., Van Os, C., & Dieten, A. J. (1984). *Applied linguistics and the learning and teaching of foreign languages.* London: Edward Arnold.

Ventriglia, L. (1982). *Conversations of Miguel and Maria: How children learn English as a second language.* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.

Volterra, V., & Antinucci, F. (1979). Negation in child language: a pragmatic study. In E. Ochs & B. Schieffelin (Eds.), *Developmental pragmatics* (pp. 281-303). New York: Academic Press.

Wagner-Gough, J. (1975). Comparative studies in second language learning. M. A. thesis. UCLA.

Waterson, N. (1971). Child phonology: A prosodic view. *Journal of Linguistics*, *7*, 179-211.

Weinrich, U. (1953). *Language in context: Findings and problems*. New York.

Widdowson, H. G. (1973). *An applied linguistic approach to discourse analysis*. Ph. D. dissertation, University of Edinburgh.

Williams, L. (1980). Phonetic variation as a function of second language learning. In G. H. Yeni-Komshian, J. f. Kavanagh & C. A. Ferguson (Eds.), *Child phonology* (Vol. 2): *Perception* (pp. 185-215). New York: Academic Press.

Wilmot, W. (1979). *Dyadic communication* (2nd ed.). Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.

Wilson, S. (1977). The use of ethnographic techniques in educational research. *Review of Educational Research*, *47*, 245-265.

Wittgenstein, L. (1953). *Philosophical Investigations*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Wode, H. (1981) *Learning a second language: An integrated view of language acquisition*. Tübingen.

APPENDIX A. TRANSCRIPTION

What to Mark	How to Mark
1. Utterance boundary	/ placed at the end of utterance example: *don't make ears funny/he cry/like that/*
2. No gap(latching)	= placed between utterances with no time gap example: *look=look=look/*
3. Pause length	(.3) placed before utterances; utterances separated by significant pauses should be placed on separate lines example: *and/ lettuce/ man's eating lettuce/(5) one day/ was little rabbit/called Lucy/*
4. Overlap	*//* placed at beginning of overlap,] placed at end of overlapped utterances overlapped utterances go on same line example: A: B: *steamroller's stuck //*oh dear]dear/ *//now*]/
5. Self-interruption	- placed at point of interruption example: *want some-all of it/*
6. Intonation, prosodic quality	, marks low rise ? marks high rise . marks low fall(only use in adult speech) ! marks exclamatory utterance place , ? . ! at end of utterance capital letters mark increased volume: example: *YOU SILLY/* _ marks stress example: *I want that one/* ::: marks lengthened syllable(each : =one "beat") example: *hello::/* (( )) marks other voice qualities, e.g., ((LF)) laugh ((WH)) whisper ((CR)) cry ((WM)) whimper ((WN)) whine ((GR)) grunt

APPENDIX A -*(Continued)*

What to Mark	How to Mark
7. Audible breathing	-h marks in-breath h marks out-breath (h) marks laughter
8. Metatranscription marks	( ) unclear treading, no hearing achieved (cow) tentative reading X/ repetition of prior utterance, e.g., *no/X/X/*

Note. 'adapted and modified from Ochs(1979a).

APPENDIX B. AN ESL CLASSROOM LESSON PROGRAM

- administer English Oral Proficiency Test score: ________
- test Dolch & Bet's word lists scores: ________

____

A ① Introductions

- students name
- teachers name
- grade
- room
- school
- age

< oral
< wkbk

hello
My name is —
I am in grade —
I am in Rm # —
I go to Norwood School
I am — years old.
YES B: p3-5 ☐ 8 ☐

each student has.
file ☐
scrapbook ☐
workbook ☐
(2) ReachOut wkbk. ☐
Picture Book wkbk. ☐

R.O. pg 1 ☐
Reach out

match up
- small set of fl cards (→ discussion of labels) ☐

E.S.L. Readiness – Zip's Book of Puzzles ☐

② Alphabet test: oral - says in correct order: ________
reads - letters: ________

- practice printing in wkbk ☐
- ~~cut out items for letters in scrapbook~~
- arrange letters in correct order (cards) ☐
- matchup cap. & small letters /+ made/
- practice on chalkboard (eg. say a word, print initial letter etc) ☐

E.A W: 54, 55
pictures of instruments

R.O. p: 2, 3, 9, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 24, 26, 28
30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 37, 39, 43-46, 51, 53, 57, 58

test: reads: ________
prints: ________

- am. flash cards under letter ☐

B Colours test: ~~knows~~ (recogn): ________
reads colour names: ________

- Peabody I (IC)
- E. Ch. W. chart 6 – numbered cars – oral drill ☐
- scrapbooks – cut out pictures & label w. sentences (1 for ea. colour) ☐
- use flash cards – match up w. colour cards ☐
- practice writing c. names in wkbk. ☐
- R.O. p10 ☐
- Picture book 1. ☐
- YES - A: p18, 19, 21 ☐

- colour stencils (file) for extra practice (booklets available) ☐

APPENDIX B -(Continued)

C Cardinal Numbers test: can count to ______

can recognize: ______

-wkbk - 1-20 - cut out objects & match (or draw) ☐
- E. Ch. W - count objects / count obj. in classroom ☐
-R.O. p25 ☐ -practice on chalkboard. ☐
- E.A. W. (skillsbk) p3 - count objects ☐ (test↗)
* ~~E.A.W. p54 mouse puzzle~~ - -YES bkA: p23 ☐
- Picture book - test - p 13 ☐ /
- flash cards -match with objects ☐
YES B: p26-29 ☐ -arrange in correct order. ☐
-mix up - which one is missing? ☐

test: counts to: ______
recognizes: ______
writes:

---

test: ______

D ① Ordinal Numbers -introduce - flash cards ☐
-match with card #10. ☐
-mix up / arrange. ☐
-wkbk - one to ten - illustrate ☐
-ten to twenty - illustrate ☐
-practice on chalkboard ☐
- R.O. p 6, 14, 38 ☐

test: knows: ______
(reads) ______

---

② Geometric shapes test knows: ______
* I Peabody cards
pink box: envelope / practice counting ☐
-match up Peabody cards with flash cards (also) ☐
-wkbk - name & illustrate shapes ☐

APPENDIX C-1. CONSONANT ERRORS OF ESL STUDENTS

	ESL STUDENTS								
	B			C			P		
ERROR	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III
k-> g						*			
k-> Ø					*				
g-> t	*								
g-> d							*	*	
g->(g)k							*		*
g-> t					*				
g-> Ø			*						
l-> w									*
l-> Ø			*	*	*	*			*
n-> m					*				
n-> Ø			*	*					
p-> f									*
f-> p	*			*	*	*	*		*
f-> s							*		*
f-> g						*			
s-> Ø					*				
s-> t		*							
s-> tr		*							
s-> S	*	*		*	*				
s-> Ø	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
sh-> s		*							
sh-> k				*	*				
z-> y					*				
z-> Ø						*			
t-> ð	*							*	
t-> θ				*			*		
t-> Ø	*				*	*		*	
d-> Ø			*			*			
h-> k				*					
h-> Ø	*								
tS-> sh						*			
ð -> θ	*								

APPENDIX C-1- (*Continued*)

	ESL STUDENTS								
	B			C			P		
ERROR	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III
r-> l			*	*	*	*	*		
r-> s				*					
r-> n				*			*		
r-> o	*				*				
r-> (r)w	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
r-> Ø	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*
t -> d	*	*	*		*				
θ -> t			*						
θ -> ð	*			*			*		
θ -> Ø			*	*	*	*			
v-> b	*	*				*	*		
v-> w				*					
v-> z									*
v-> Ø			*		*	*			
Ø-> l	*								
Ø-> k	*		*	*	*		*		*
Ø-> p		*							
Ø-> h	*				*		*		
Ø-> r	*						*		

Note. I, II, III : step or stage

APPENDIX C-2. VOWEL ERRORS OF ESL STUDENTS

	ESL STUDENTS								
	B			C			P		
ERROR	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III
a -> *ae*							*		
ar-> or									*
ae -> e	*			*			*	*	
ae -> Λ	*						*	*	
e -> Λ		*							
e ->*ae*	*						*	*	
e -> i	*				*				
ei -> *ae*	*								
ei -> e	*		*	*	*	*	*		
Er -> r	*			*					*
or -> ar				*	*	*	*	*	*
Er ->ey									*
i: -> I	*			*					
i -> o	*								
I -> e				*			*		
Λ -> a	*								
o -> Λ	*								
u -> ou		*			*		*	*	*
Ø -> a	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	
Ø -> o	*			*		*	*		
w -> p							*		
w -> Ø	*			*	*	*	*		
Ø -> w								*	
y -> Ø	*			*	*	*			
Ø -> y							*		

APPENDIX C-3. CONSONANT ERRORS OF KSL STUDENTS

	KSL STUDENTS									
	S1			S2			S3			Oth
ERROR	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III	
k^h -> k'	*									
k -> ŋ									*	
k -> l							*			
k -> n			*							
k -> Ø							*			
l -> ll		*					*			
l -> k		*								
l -> m							*			
l -> s		*	*							
l -> Ø	*		*		*	*	*	*	*	
n -> l			*							
n -> ŋ	*			*	*	*	*			
n -> Ø			*							
p -> p'							*	*	*	
p -> m				*						
p' -> p					*					
t -> t'					*				*	
t -> l		*		*		*		*	*	
s -> n				*	*		*		*	
s -> k									*	
~~s ->~~ z				*						
s -> Ø			*		*		*	*		*
z -> zz(z')	*		*	*						
th-> t						*				
ts -> k		*	*							
ŋ -> k					*					
ŋ -> n									*	
Ø -> k					*					
Ø -> l								*	*	*
Ø -> n		*							*	
Ø -> b						*				

Note. Oth: other students

APPENDIX C-4. VOWEL ERRORS OF KSL STUDENTS

	KSL STUDENTS									
	S1			S2			S3			Oth
Stage	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III	
a -> o										*
ae -> i					*					
ae -> e										*
e -> *ae*	*									
->o					*	*				
->a								*		
->Ø			*				*			
o -> a					*					
o ->u	*	*	*	*	*	*			*	
o -> we	*									
u -> o										*
I -> o									*	
i -> a		*								
Ø -> a						*			*	
Ø -> o									*	
Ø -> I			*			*	*		*	
Ø -> i			*							
w -> y		*								
w -> Ø					*				*	*
y -> Ø	*		*	*	*	*			*	*
Ø -> y			*	*	*			*	*	